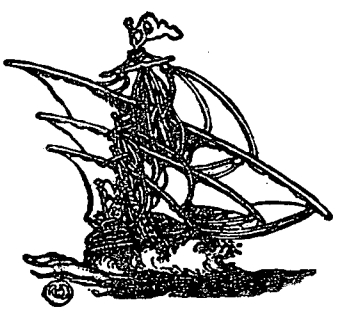
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

NOVEMBER 15, 1923



The Bill for Benevolence

By W. J. Norton

The Nervous Child

By Bernard Glueck, M. D.

What About the Farm?

Two contrasting pictures
By Clarke F. Ansley and
Martha Bensley Bruère

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A Glimpse Ahead

A SURVEYOR'S CHAIN (vide the border of this page) is made of many links. The Survey likewise. We use this page this month to list and describe as briefly as we can some of the links which The Survey will use in coming issues in mapping the field of human betterment.

The Bill for Benevolence Norton of Detroit introduces with his article this month a series of studies in social finance. He will consider in turn the four main sources of income for the current expenses of social agencies: voluntary gifts, earnings from clients, taxation, and the proceeds of endowments. In discussing each of these he draws on the experience of cities where one or two other of these factors has been developed in an outstanding way: Cleveland, Boston, Detroit, St. Louis, Philadelphia, New York. Though Mr. Norton is a successful federation executive he writes here as a student of the whole pattern of social finance—in which the federation is of course only a single strand.

Babbitt, Philanthropist Who's going to pay the bill for benevolence tomorrow? Rotarians, Kiwanians, Shriners, Moose, Lions, and a dozen other clubs and orders speak up promptly and tell the world they'll do their bit. Some of the most interesting developments in American philanthropy today are to be found on the borderline between old-fashioned benevolence and up-to-date boosting. Neva R. Deardorff, an associate editor of The Survey, is studying some of the points at which organized business men are taking hold of social work problems. A link in social finance.

Which Comes First? When every sort of good cause from prison-visiting to psychiatric clinics is clamoring for support how is a giver —or an organized community—to decide between the claims of various types of work? Rowland Haynes of Cleveland offers a few rule-of-thumb observations for use in approaching this question. Social finance again.

How Much for Health? Something like a workable yardstick is being fashioned in one field of social progress—that of public health. Dr. Haven Emerson, The Survey's health editor, writes of the standards for measuring typical public health services and computing the health needs of a particular community which have been developed on the basis of exhaustive studies by a committee affiliated with the American Public Health Association. Social finance from another angle.

A Center That Grew Last month Edward M. Barrows wrote of Backyard Battlefields, making the point that you can't organize a community because it has always done that for itself, and you can't even work with it unless you recognize neighborhood factions. Next month he tells the story of a neighborhood center that had its beginning in a frank realization of those facts, and which consequently grew from within instead of being put together from the outside—like building blocks, and with as little stability.

Saving Country Babies The baby whose father teaches him to smoke before his mother weans him is a bit out of range of most of our city-bred health propaganda. But he exists, and he is part of a baby-health problem in rural states on which attention is just beginning to be focussed. Dr. Frances Sage Bradley, director of the bureau of child hygiene in the Arkansas Department of Health, spreads that problem before city and country readers in the health pages.

Dross in the Melting Pot When Congress turned last winter to the biologists for help in straightening out the problem of controlling immigration, Harry H. Laughlin of the Eugenics Record Office of the Carnegie Institution made a report which seemed to put eugenic theory squarely behind the policy of racial selection of immigrants. There has been much difference of opinion as to whether Dr. Laughlin's conclusions necessarily followed from his premises. Professor H. S. Jennings of Johns Hopkins University discusses the report authoritatively.

One at a Time The Jews worked out a practicable form of financial federation before it became common as a community affair. In the district service plan which some Jewish communities are working out, some students of community organization see even more significant promise. It is a method of establishing close relationship between social work and the community; one of its sensible features is that a single visitor makes contacts with a single family on behalf of all the interested agencies. Hyman Kaplan of the United Jewish Social Agencies of Cincinnati outlines this new plan in the communities department.

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.

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THE SURVEY—Twice-a-month—$5.00 a year
SURVEY GRAPHIC—Monthly—$3.00 a year

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THE SURVEY, *published semi-monthly and copyright* 1923 *by* SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC., 112 *East* 19 *Street, New York.*

Price: This issue 25 *cents a copy;* $5 *a year; Canadian postage* 50 *cents; foreign postage,* $1 *extra. Changes of address should be mailed us two weeks in advance. When payment is by check a receipt will be sent only upon request.*

Entered as second-class matter, March 25, 1909, *at the post office, New York, N. Y., under the Act of March* 3, 1879. *Acceptance for mailing at a special rate of postage provided for in Section* 1103, *Act of October* 3, 1917, *authorized on June* 26, 1918.

112 East 19 Street, New York

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

Vol. LI, No. 4 November 15, 1923

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The Gist of It

WITHOUT calling in the richly assorted terminology of the new psychology, which most of us are acquiring—a little breathlessly—just as fast as we can, it is safe to say that progress in social effort depends pretty much on a fairly rhythmic interaction between the mostly-thinkers and the mostly-doers. It is apt to be the mostly-thinkers who start things, but unless their ideas fall into the hands of the mostly-doers their projects are likely to perish in infancy. But on the other hand when the mostly-doers have been exploiting the ideas of the mostly-thinkers long enough the ideas begin to grow perceptibly stale, and there comes to be a time when there is much doing—but progressively decreasing accomplishment. Then it is high time for the mostly-doers to take back the record of their experience, and their hunches, to the mostly-thinkers, so that a re-examination of the old ideas and technique may lead to fresh progress.

WE HAVE no intention whatever of classifying the contributors to this issue as mostly-thinkers or mostly-doers. But in this number several striking pieces of re-examination happen to come together. Take for example the introductory sketch with which W. J. Norton (p. 183) begins a fresh study of social finance. Mr. Norton, secretary of the Detroit Community Fund, goes back of the technique of money raising to the deeper questions often overlooked.

BACK TO THE CHILD—the whole child—say the psychiatrists. Here is a field in which all our technique of child-care and education is being re-examined in the light of the fresh concepts and hypotheses which we lump loosely together as the new psychology. The mostly-thinkers and mostly-doers are still working in close contact: new ideas are being tested against a rapidly growing body of fact, and a technique, still fluid, is being tried and taught in clinics whch are spreading, city by city, over the country. Dr. Bernard Glueck, who writes of The Nervous Child (p. 186) is director of one of these clinics, the Bureau of Children's Guidance in New York, affiliated for teaching purposes with the New York School of Social Work, and forming part of the Commonwealth Fund program for the prevention of delinquency. This article is the substance of a paper read before the American Psychiatric Association.

BACK TO THE COMMUNITY, says Henry W. Thurston, who was asked to make a re-examination of the results of child welfare work in Rochester. Scattered, intermittent, uncoordinated efforts on the part of single agencies don't keep bad boys and girls from getting worse and don't prevent their younger brothers and sisters, and later their sons and daughters, from walking the same road. The penetrating study made by Mr. Thurston, of the New York School of Social Work, and his colleagues is reviewed on p. 197; its significance as a community adventure is noted on p. 199.

BACK TO THE PARENT, says Dr. Haven Emerson, health editor of The Survey, in a "sermon to health workers" (p. 219). Here is again a challenge to folks who are in the thick of the fight to giive thought to a problem of major strategy. The article is the substance of an address at the first annual meeting of the American Child Health Association.

BACK TO THE FARM is an old slogan. Clarke F. Ansley, who has a habit of getting down underneath the level where slogans operate, adds (p. 203) another of his penetrating studies of what is really happening on American farms. Oddly enough, Martha Bensley Bruère, just back from an editorial field trip through the electric-lighted farm country of Ontario, has written just in time for publication in the same issue with Mr. Ansley's article an account of the plowing match at Sarnia (p. 210). The picture is a very different one. On the Canadian side joy in work, professional pride, and farm prosperity. On the American side signs of economic decay: "a peasantry inherits the earth."

HOUSING PROGRESS in Western Europe, war and the peace to the contrary, is far more advanced than in the United States. Mrs. Wood's article (p. 214) is taken from her book, to be published shortly by E. P. Dutton & Co. under the title which begins this paragraph.

PORTO RICO—American and foreign at the same time—offers an odd background for an American sweatshop. Mr. Jones, who draws the picture (p. 209) is the executive secretary of the Maryland Children's Aid Society, and is just home from a trip to the island.

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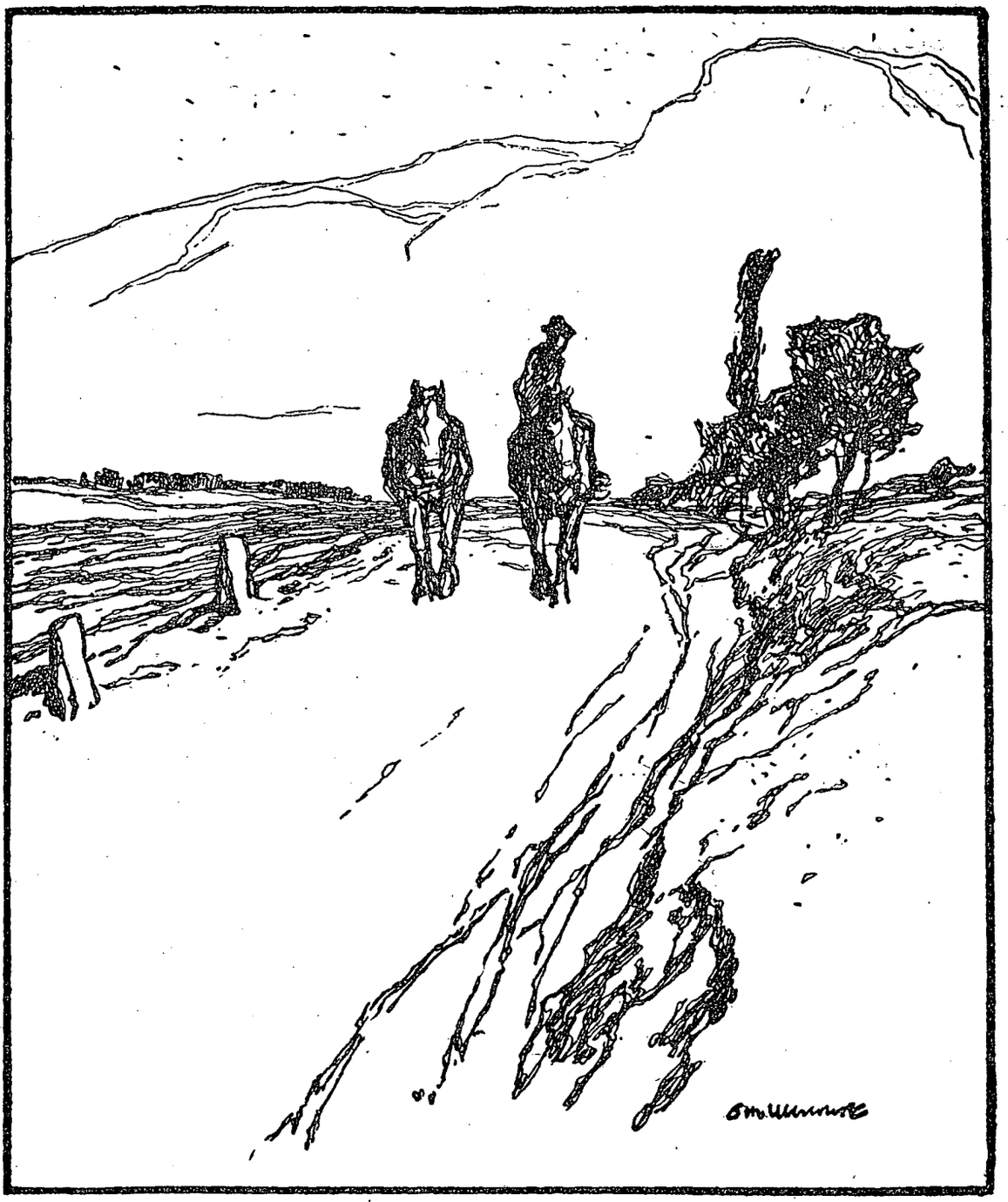

FOR GOOD OR ILL, A PEASANTRY INHERITS THE EARTH *(Some Unwritten History of Farms, p. 203)*

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THE SURVEY

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November 15
1923

Volume LI
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The Bill for Benevolence

By William J. Norton

Introducing a Series of Studies in Social Finance

"I HAVE reached the limit of my giving for this year. You have got to put more and more of this work into the government."

The speaker was emphatic. He is a rich man and a generous one. Not a rich man who thinks he is generous but a rich man who is generous. I had been asking him to buy a small piece of property as a modest beginning in a certain kind of health work.

"Here," he said, showing a file of letters across the desk, "are the appeals that have come in during the last two days. Do you know about any of them?"

I ran through them, eighteen in all. Two were from educational institutions in the hinterlands of the Appalachians; three from Negro schools in the south; one from a gentleman who promised to make my friend a member—upon the payment of a satisfactory sum, of course—of an exclusive body that was to finance memorials for Revolutionary heroes; one from a committee that conducts an annual international speed-boat regatta; one from a hundred per cent Americanism body, hot on the trail of radicalism; one from a law enforcement group; one from an international relief society; one from a symphony orchestra; one from a political organization that had run a deficit in its last campaign; three from church building fund committees; and the others for various social enterprises ranging from the endowment of a research laboratory for cancer, through several building funds, down to a limited number of modest current expense requests. The total askings for the two days had specified requests for $45,000 and less than half of the appeals had named a sum of money.

We talked. I outlined to him the immense volume of work the governments, national, state, county and municipal, were now carrying. He countered by shoving back across the desk the folder of appeals, and stating that if he gave even to those that interested him, he would be constantly eating into his capital.

Back on the street my eye was arrested by a screaming headline in the noon edition of the newspaper. It read "Comptroller says city exceeds bond limit." I bought the paper and read that if all bonds then authorized by a vote of the people were actually issued the legal limitation for bonded indebtedness would be exceeded. In one column the comptroller pleaded for a blanket stoppage of all extension programs, and a reduction of taxes by strict economy in general. In another column the superintendent of schools was setting forth the need for money for more buildings to house the constantly growing number of pupils.

Pushing in a Circle

Here then is a circle. The social worker, the churchman and other semi-public personages are pushing the giver to finance social expansion. The giver, harassed and irritable, insists that a larger share of the burden shall be assumed by the taxpayer. The public official, also engaged in the business of meeting growing common needs, is pushing the taxpayer for all he is worth. And the taxpayer, who is none other than the giver under compulsion, is growling and showing his teeth.

What is the trouble? Have our social institutions, expanding under pressure of the rapid change from rural to industrial and commercial urban life, reached a stage where they must slow down or mark time? Or is there a way out of the present confusion that besets benevolent, church, and governmental finance, all of which together make up a great field of social finance?

I believe there is a way out. I believe there is an answer to the problem that becomes more and more perplexing. It will not be a simple formula, however, arrived at over a broad and easy road of logic, but a complex answer found only after travelling a series of twisting, rough, and difficult trails. Somehow there must be developed a scientific approach to the whole problem of social finance. It must be

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developed as a whole in some one place; and when the problem has been mastered both in theory and practice it must be passed on to social, governmental and church agencies for use in maintaining an altruistic, healthful, efficient and decent citizenship.

The Bill for Benevolence

In order to begin to understand this need let us consider for a moment the gigantic bill for benevolence. No one really knows how many benevolent agencies, private and governmental, there are in America: hospitals, old people's homes, and other kinds of eleemosynary institutions; case-working, nursing, child-placing, recreational and various social service societies, schools, colleges and universities; churches; and many other groups. Nor does any one have an accurate estimate of the almost incomprehensible value of their properties, and the giant sum consumed each year in their maintenance.

Some fragments of information illuminate portions of the picture. A recent newspaper story, apparently released by the Census Bureau, estimates that tax exempt property owned by the federal government, the states, counties, municipalities and charitable and religious organizations is valued at $20,000,000,000. Limiting our outlook to the more comprehensible picture of private philanthropy, we are told that in one of the great cities of the Middle West where charitable institutions have not had the accumulative growth of the Atlantic seaboard, the real property held by about ninety-five social service organizations is worth approximately $30,000,000.

In seven cities, three from the East and four from the Middle West, which represent about 5½ per cent of the national population, some seven hundred local private social service organizations, covering perhaps 70 per cent of all the agencies in those cities, hold in round numbers somewhere in the neighborhood of $140,000,000 of income-bearing personal property. A single great foundation reports its securities as valued at $160,000,000. Officers of a community foundation state that better than $50,000,000 is now written into wills to its credit. A single nation-wide commercial money-raising agency, advertising the results of the campaigns it has conducted in four and one-half years, lists a total of $356,000,000, of which a large proportion, apparently, was for capital funds.

Turning to the field of current expense the same seven cities mentioned above, with their 5½ per cent of the nation's people, have current operating budgets for seven hundred agencies (70 per cent of all their agencies), estimated at a little more than $43,000,000. Thirty-one federated cities from all parts of the country, covering 7½ per cent of the national population, raised $22,000,000 in voluntary gifts in a year. The voluntary gift meets, apparently, about one-third of the gross income of these agencies. An international society stated last spring that its 1923 needs for local, state, national and international work would take in round numbers $50,000,000.

Three-Quarters of a Billion Yearly

One cannot compute from these fragments the money cost of private social work in America; but from this and other evidences it seems not unreasonable to estimate that the holdings run close to two and one-half or three billion dollars and the annual cost is not far from three-quarters of a billion dollars.

To this bill for private charity, using the term in the comprehensive sense in which the public uses it, must be added the cost of the privately endowed universities and colleges, the immense structure of the church, and a growing number of mutual organizations, esthetic societies and propaganda movements. And in addition there is the body of municipal, state and federal government welfare enterprises sprawling across the continent in a giant and constantly growing network.

The Saturation Point

We come back now to our givers and to our taxpayers who are footing the generous bill. All of the enterprises—private charity, private philanthropy, private education, the church and the departments of government—are seeking the interest of these supporters and money from their earnings. They are struggling in desperate competition to coax the financial backer not only for expansion of services but also for perpetuation, through endowment, of parts of the work. A Baptist preacher told me the other day that there were more than six hundred vacant Baptist pulpits in the rural parts of Illinois, which means among other things that the Protestant Church must learn some prompt and effective lessons in refinancing as well as in reorganizing. A leading social worker of a great eastern urban center, noted for its generosity, writes that last year the combined budgets of all the private agencies exceeded the income for all sources by $300,000. In talking with friends from Cleveland, Cincinnati and Rochester where the federation movement has been increasing by leaps and bounds the volume of voluntary gifts, I have caught the feeling that this source of revenue—for the time being, in those localities—is reaching the point of saturation. A close student of social finance in another city is afraid that the operating expenses brought about by enlarged institutional facilities secured in recent building fund campaigns will leap far ahead of the probable increase in current revenue.

The Growth of Municipal Activity

If we make a resumé of municipal government we get, from another angle, the same picture of growing pressure upon the national income. The Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research published some time ago an illuminating chart, illustrating the expanding scope of municipal government. Prior to 1824, Detroit had assumed only eleven municipal functions. By 1856 the number of functions had grown to nineteen; by 1895 to seventy-four; and by 1921 to one hundred and eighty-four. In 1856 the tax rate was $3.59; in 1895 it was $15.70; and in 1921, it was $21.56. The per capita tax rose from $3.85 in 1856; $13.40 in 1895; to $42.62 in 1921. While the population grew 2,265 per cent from 1856 to 1921 and the assessed valuation 3,941 per cent the tax levy increased 24,242 per cent. The chart is a fascinating study of the progressive absorption of common functions by the common government. And nearly half of the functions added in the last thirty years, that marvelously prolific period in benevolent activity, grew out of the field of social service. That thirty year period, marking the great growth of municipal activity, marks also the most productive period that work for human welfare, under all sanctions, has known. The scope of work included in this conception has been widened by a multitude of new projects, and an enormous number of new supporters has been gained. The spreading of the income tax illustrates

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the point. So also does the growth of current giving to social work in federated cities, where millions replace the hundred thousand previously raised, and hundred thousands replace the tens of thousands of givers formerly secured.

Rising in an even key from the early nineties until the close of the war, the rate of increase in welfare work and support reached a climax somewhere between 1918 and 1920. But immediately afterwards the rate of increase in demand began to outrun the rate of increase in income. After the war the torrent of new income began to slow down by comparison with the torrent of new appeals. The giver and the tax payer, who up to this time had yielded ground rapidly after every onslaught, began suddenly and naturally to respond more grudgingly and more slowly. This need not cause much alarm; the established objects of benevolence are probably not seriously threatened. But when we are faced in all fields with a demand increase in excess of income increase, the result is competition among all benevolent projects for a share of the normal income, a competition so keen that it creates a serious problem. This competitive struggle may throttle some excellent enterprises not yet fully established (inasmuch as real merit is by no means the only determining factor in a struggle for survival); or all enterprises, except those most favored with endowment or aggressive leadership, must mark time for a fairly long period; or some new approach, synthetic and more intelligent, must be made to the whole question of social finance.

This third alternative is by no means an impossible one, and it deserves attention without delay. The whole field of social finance needs to be divided into easily defined sections and each section thoroughly analyzed from the point of view of both productivity and cost. Then when one resource has been temporarily exhausted we shall have sufficient knowledge of other resources to enable us to carry on, temporarily at least, in a different way.

Four Sources

Let me illustrate from my home town. Detroit's social work is carried on by four different sources of revenue. The total bill for what we generally class as social work is in the neighborhood of thirteen and a half million dollars a year. Voluntary gifts produce about $2,350,000; earnings from clients $6,000,000; tax funds $4,900,000; and interest from endowments $260,000. Are all of these sources adequately productive? Certainly not. Are any of them so? Possibly—but not certainly, tax funds and earnings from clients.

What methods prevailing in other parts of America will teach us in Detroit to stimulate production in unproductive fields? What do we really know about the costs of our work, or to put the same thing in another way, what do we know about values received for dollars expended in social work?

The financing of social work has become a giant enterprise. It needs to be studied as a problem in itself. I propose in ensuing articles to discuss some of the questions already raised, in the hope of stimulating discussion that will lead toward a synthetic understanding of social finance as a whole.

The Nervous Child

By Bernard Glueck, M. D.

WHAT do we mean by a "nervous child"? Because of its general implications, and also because of the real lack of clarity even among specialists in its use, the term is often applied loosely and not infrequently to the detriment of the child under consideration. It is worth while therefore to examine carefully into its significance.

It is fairly simple to define the term if we confine ourselves to those cases in which a reliable developmental history shows that from the very beginning the child displayed behavior characteristics sufficiently out of the ordinary to attract the attention of those about him. In such cases the mothers tell us quite regularly that these youngsters, from the moment of birth, seem to be extraordinarily sensitive to ordinary sensory stimuli. They cannot endure bright light, showing much discomfort and irritability, and often bursting into tears, even in the presence of moderately strong light. They are unusually sensitive to the quality of the clothing which touches their bodies; they are fidgety, restless and sleepless when it happens to be a little rough. Even such moderately intense noises as the creaking of a door or the voice of an adult, if at all gruff and loud, startle them violently and may even bring on a fit of crying. They are unusually sensitive to changes of temperature, and the daily toilet, unless very carefully adjusted, throws them into a panic.

All this extreme sensitiveness is reflected also in their sleep and food habits. They often wake with a start, crying loudly and for a long time, and evidencing fear and anxiety. They frequently suffer digestive upsets, especially when there is even a slight variation in feeding, though their nutrition is not necessarily bad.

Involuntary twitchings of various groups of muscles, and an unusual intensity of emotional display in connection with crying spells, are occasionally observed in such children. Their reaction to the ordinary ailments of infancy and early childhood is apt to be very intense. Mothers are sometime startled by the look of anxiety and worry on the face of such a child and the general impression which he gives of discomfort for which there seems to be no outward reason. This frequent lack of obvious reason for the abnormal manifestations, and their very early appearance, lend force to the belief that we are dealing here primarily, if not wholly, with innate factors in the child's constitution. Occasionally this view is made more convincing in the individual case by the presence of hereditary factors which may be interpreted fairly definitely.

As these children grow older, their hypersensitiveness and over-awareness is seen to be combined with an increased susceptibility to fatigue, which is manifest even before formal demands are made on the child's energy as, for example, in school life.

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It usually proves very difficult to get these children to sleep; they are apt to spend a good part of the early evening hours in combating an undue awareness and wakefulness, until, exhausted, they finally drop off into a restless sleep. But they have difficulty in waking in the morning, feel tired and exhausted and are often exceptionally irritable and peevish during the early hours of the day. This contrasts so sharply with the freshness and buoyancy of the normal child's early morning behavior as to attract attention. Before the day is over these children are worn out and too worked up nervously to compose themselves to go off to sleep.

THESE are, essentially, the very earliest manifestations of the constitutionally nervous child. But as the child grows and makes wider contacts with his environment, new factors enter the situation and complicate it to a considerable degree.

Before discussing these complications, one must point out that many of the elements which have a share in bringing them about are part and parcel of the life of every child. In connection with the ordinary process of growth from infancy through childhood to maturity, the growing individual encounters many issues which call for special efforts at adaptation and which may lead to a variety of maladjustments.

Indeed, as we shall see later, all the manifestations of nervousness of a pronounced kind may be brought about in connection with difficulties in adapting oneself to the problem of growing up. But these issues take on a special significance for the constitutionally burdened child, partly because of his own handicaps, and partly because of the coloring which these handicaps are apt to give to the attitudes and reactions of those about him. For instance, parents often see in the nervous child's over-awareness and oversensitiveness only signs of "brightness," and consequently force his development with seriously detrimental results. It does often happen that the nervous child has exceptionally good intelligence, and it is this characteristic that parents and teachers are apt to want to make the most of, ignoring his other characteristics. This may lead to a secondary reaction of irritability, opposition or positive rebellion. Such reactions can often be readily changed through attention to the underlying problem of fatigue, but when not understood and improperly managed, they force the nervous child into all sorts of maladjustments.

UNDESIRABLE personality characteristics may be established in the nervous child through improper management of traits which are innate from the very first. There is the problem of the child's own attitude towards his nervousness and of the manner in which he incorporates this attitude into his relations with the world about him. Although an element of deliberation and conscious purpose often plays a part in this process, its results may be displayed in children as young as three or four. Headaches, vomiting, insomnia, lack of application and easy discouragement—which in their origin may have been purely the expression of the child's inferior nervous organization—may assume new qualities for the child if there is unwise management on the part of the adults who surround him, and he may exploit them to his own harm and the despair of his parents and teachers. It is remarkable how readily even very young children may hit upon this sort of exploitation, which in large measure is responsible for their behavior difficulties.

It is hard for most parents to keep a wise balance between the necessity of making allowances for the child's native handicaps, and the equal necessity of helping him to overcome these handicaps through sympathetic but sensible guidance in the cultivation of nervous control. The apple does not fall far from the tree: the situation is commonly complicated by bad example on the part of the neurotic parent in addition to the trouble brought about by lack of understanding. It is almost always necessary, therefore, to treat the parents as well as the nervous child in cases like these.

So far as these unhealthy trends in the nervous child are deliberate, their purpose is to gain a preferential position in home and classroom, and so to avoid the unpleasant features of the task of adaptation. Sometimes they come to the surface when the situation involves a deliberate testing of oneself with one's fellows; the child resorts to an obvious disability as a convenient way out. Children who are or who consider themselves to be inferior are apt to cultivate such trends deliberately. This is one of the dangers of the nervous child, and should be kept in mind in any attempt to deal constructively with him.

It is pretty well established that the unhealthy trends which are conscious and deliberate—whether in the so-called normal individual or the one who is constitutionally handicapped—are apt not to be so deep-seated and so difficult to eradicate as those which have their roots in less conscious elements of the personality and which partake more definitely of the instinctive-emotional life of the child. The deliberate exploitation of one's nervousness is apt to be a benign affair when compared with the more far-reaching emotional constellations which develop most readily upon the soil of constitutional nervous inferiority. Psychiatrists are familiar with the more clear-cut instances of anxiety states, compulsive thoughts and actions, phobias of a specific kind or more generalized fear-states, the quite typical conversion-hysterias and the various speech disorders which the nervous child may manifest. Evidence is accumulating to justify the belief that in these clear-cut examples of functional nervous disorder there are more specific elements of causation in addition to the underlying constitutional predisposition. At any rate, efforts to treat such disorders are regularly apt to be more successful when these specific elements are dealt with.

BUT the nervous child is exposed to the cultivation of trends and more permanent attitudes of a kind which hamper normal development to a marked degree, but which are frequently ignored because they are less specific, or because they cannot be identified strictly with the better known type of personality disorders.

All the important issues in the emotional relationships between children and parents, with which we have become familiar through the researches of the psychoanalytic school, all the danger points in the sexual organization of the individual, to which our attention has also been called by this school, assume special significance in the case of the nervously handicapped child. Such a situation, indeed, may ultimately come to be accepted as the real explanation of the peculiar sexual and parental adaptations which are revealed in the life histories of the adult psychoneurotic. Though we are not at all inclined to minimize the external

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factor in these adaptations, so definitely stressed by the psychoanalytic school, we must give due weight—if we are to be open-minded—to the fact that some of the situations specially stressed in explaining the origin of a psychoneurosis enter into the experience of countless boys and girls without ever leading to a psychoneurosis. It is the capacity for healthy adaptation to such events and situations that determines the issue.

The nervous child lacks, to a greater or less extent, the capacity for adaptation. Even in connection with the fairly simple sensory phenomena of an erotic nature which make up so large a part of the infant's existence, differences begin to appear between such children and others. Whether the explanation is to be sought in a greater need for soothing sensations, or in the more complex problem of inhibition and control, the nervous child does have greater difficulty than the normally endowed child in outgrowing these sensory indulgences which belong naturally to the infantile and early childhood states.

He may, for example, indulge in thumb-sucking, genital play, nail-biting, picking at the nasal orifices, and other activities which seem to be based on a desire for continuous sensory stimulation of a specific kind, beyond the period usual to the growing child and, at times, even until he is an adult.

THE nervous child finds difficulty in cultivating healthy methods of adaptation also in dealing with the more fully and more consciously elaborated desires. Instead of gradually acquiring the inhibitory powers which make it possible for the normally developing child to postpone the satisfaction of his desire until a suitable opportunity arises, the nervous child is apt to react to a balking of his desires with intense tantrums. In this, too, one might see simply an underlying protracted infantilism. He has difficulty also with the many childhood reactions which have their roots in the problems of authority and dependency to which every growing individual has to adjust. Maladjustment in this ever-present problem of the child leads to various unhealthy and often anti-social reactions.

Moreover, his unhealthy reactions to the problem of authority, when they occur, commonly take the form of an exaggerated tendency to dependence, to a continuous maintenance of those parent-child relationships which are normal only at a certain period of life. Only rarely do these children show the opposite tendency to active rebellion. It might be pointed out, for practical reasons, that the latter type of reaction, though it is apt to cause more annoyance to the adult concerned, and is therefore likely to provoke the adult to more intensive retaliative attitudes, is commonly more wholesome from the point of view of mental hygiene than the former. Nevertheless, in dealing with such cases, parents, teachers and law officers often resort to procedure which is likely to aggravate the situation unnecessarily. The intensification and sometimes the fixation of undesirable traits which may result is due more to wrong procedure than to the child's innate disposition. In contrast with the rebellious attitude of what is often a healthy youngster, who prefers to deal with life's issues directly and objectively, the shrinking, dependent and intimidated attitude of the neurotic child appears distinctly the more pathological.

The nervous child has difficulty in acquiring a sufficiently thick skin for adequate adaptation to life. Often he suffers from feelings of inadequacy which make him shrink from many of the ordinary pursuits of healthy children, and expose him to cruel exploitation by his playmates. The nervous child rarely reaches, when he grows up, a healthy sense of self-esteem which has no need of such artificial props as the well-known adult neurotic reactions of a compensatory or substitutive nature. The child who as an infant was oversensitive to sensory stimuli is likely to have an over-sensitive conscience which gives rise to various unhealthy attitudes. He is apt to be over-inclined to self-accusation, and to go through deep moral conflicts over experiences which the normally endowed child digests in a healthy fashion. He is likely also to appear constantly to be seeking opportunities for unburdening himself. The sense of inadequacy, coupled with an over-active conscience and a general tendency to feel unusually deeply about things, leads the nervous child to all sorts of compensatory efforts, so variable in character as to defy orderly description.

IMPORTANT as it is to emphasize these underlying constitutional handicaps, it is equally important to recognize fully the power of certain experiences and events in the life of the normal child to induce a state of nervousness quite as profound as that of the type which we have been discussing. In some respects this is even more important, since here it is possible to make some definite therapeutic efforts which lead to satisfactory adjustments much more commonly than is the case in dealing with the constitutionally burdened child.

Intense nervous reactions, arising from readily accessible causes, may develop in a normally constituted child in connection with a troublesome group of ideas. Either as a result of some personal experience which goes counter to the child's moral attitude, or as a part of a deep impression gained from witnessing certain occurrences or reading about them, the child may carry away an idea which persists with the force of an obsession, absorbing the entire attention and leading to deep emotional states of a destructive kind, such as fear and guilt. Even a perfectly normal child—and cases have come to our attention in which a painstaking inquiry failed to reveal any indication of a constitutional handicap—may carry this distressing and incapacitating imagery for a long time before he finds an opportunity to unburden himself.

Because so frequently these "secret thoughts," as the children put it, partake of something sexual, they give rise to constant sexual stimulation which in turn intensifies the child's feelings of guilt and fear.

The secretiveness to which this may lead is so far-reaching as to effect materially the child's intercourse with other children, so that more elements of a pathological nature are added to the underlying problem. It is remarkable to see how a nervous, anxious and deeply worried boy, who may be referred for psychiatric study primarily because of his withdrawal from other children and a peculiar defensive attitude when one attempts to get close to him, becomes free and natural in his general relationships when he has had an opportunity for a thorough unburdening of his mind. The possibility of serious damage as a result of carrying a troublesome secret adds much weight to the hygienic value of cultivating and maintaining a healthy comradeship between parents and children as a means of holding the chil-

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dren's confidence. When such experiences come to a child a thoroughly dependable friend is needed.

THE child's school life gives rise to other events, which may be discerned fairly easily, which may lead to profound neurotic manifestations. The classroom is—among other things—the arena to which to a very large extent the child tests himself in the game of life. In so far as the life of the classroom offers the child sufficient opportunity for experiencing a sense of success, and for proving himself worthy of the esteem of his fellows, it contributes something very positive to the mental health of that child. Conversely, aside from the more limited question of how much knowledge the child acquires in the classroom, repeated experiences of failure tend to bring out reactions of a profound neurotic type.

When the further effects of a misinterpretation of the situation are added to the feeling of discouragement, self-accusation, irritability and moroseness, there may be a degree of bitterness which is very distressing. The child who develops, in connection with a situation which he apprehends as being beyond his control, the feeling that he has been dealt with unjustly or has been discriminated against, is apt to cultivate attitudes and to give expression to reactions which can readily be classified as pathological. Moreover, when failure is due to the continued exposure to tasks which are beyond the child's capacity to meet adequately, the resultant irritation and fatigue complicate the more purely psychological reactions. At times the child's failure appears to be wholly unnecessary, depending not upon any lack of capacity in himself, but largely upon a lack of understanding or some hampering attitude of the teacher. The child sees through the elements involved, but is impotent (because of his status as a pupil) to modify them, and consequently adds the feeling that he is not wanted, is not liked, and is being discriminated against, to his own unhealthy reactions to his sense of failure.

In other cases intensely neurotic manifestations may be traced to nothing further than incomplete utilization by the school task of an especially active and capable mind. The opportunity which results for uncontrolled day-dreaming, the indifferent sort of effort required for the fulfilment of the assigned tasks, the irritation at having to adjust one's pace to the slower pupils, and particularly the insult to the child's self-esteem from a failure to have his talents recognized, may lead to very troublesome and unhealthy reactions on his part. The unutilized energy is diverted into a restless nervousness or mischief which brings in its wake conditions for further maladjustment.

In the case of these induced neurotic reactions, it is possible to demonstrate (in contrast to the situation in the constitutionally burdened child) that the disorder had a definite onset in the career of a child formerly free from neurotic manifestations. The removal of the offending environmental situation, moreover, and the development of a proper understanding of it, remove the symptoms and sometimes serve the child as a positive and valuable bit of instruction in the business of living. More obscure and less easily managed are those induced neurotic reactions which have their roots in early experiences in connection with the intimate affective life of the home. Commonly the untoward reactions of a neurotic nature which call attention to difficulty of this sort come to light much earlier than is the case in the situations just discussed, but the child may have been altogether free from neurotic manifestations for the first three or four years of its life.

Then, perhaps, in connection with some event, usually relating to the child's love-life or to some change of status with reference to little brothers or sisters, a wholly new set of reactions sets in and stamps the child as a nervous child. We have seen such reactions when circumstances necessitated a prolonged separation of the mother and child in such manner as to make the child feel that he is not loved by the mother as much as the other children. Or the advent of a new baby is followed by intense nervous reactions of an irritable, negativistic and pugnacious character which are clearly expressions of jealousy. The two-year old child we have in mind succeeded one day in removing the new arrival from its crib and shoving it under the mother's bed in an attempt to eliminate the offending creature.

Cases have been reported where the neurotic manifestations were definitely linked with the advent of the day when a wet nurse had to be given up and the child had to adjust itself to his natural mother without the compensatory relief gained from the person whose breast nourished it. It is claimed that the doubt engendered as to which of the two mothers really deserved the love and loyalty was at the bottom of the nervous manifestation.

In other children, the numerous occasions for competitive bidding for the approval and affection of the parents may lead in the case of the unsuccessful ones to intense neurotic manifestations. These subtler influences in the life of the child have been thoroughly discussed by the psychoanalytic school of psychology. The criticism is sometimes made that these formulations are based solely on the imperfect recollections of adult neurotics, but it can be dismissed quite readily in view of the cumulative evidence, gained from study of childhood, of their actual operation in the lives of children.

IT is of practical importance to ask how far adult neuroses may be prevented through the timely adjustment to these induced neurotic manifestations of childhood. It is probably true that where spontaneous recovery takes place, as it undoubtedly does in a great many cases, it is due to successful repression of the offending event or experience after much of the emotional accompaniment had been released in some overt behavior expression which partook of the nature of a satisfactory adjustment. Life in contact with friends and relatives offers innumerable opportunities for the satisfactory settlement of many of the issues which trouble the soul of childhood.

Not long ago I was watching a five-year old child tell its troubles to her special pet doll, and wondered how much real relief she got from doing it. To what extent can we deliberately assist childhood in settling its problems as they occur? In order to be most effective here we must cultivate a more open-minded attitude in dealing with the question of constitutional and innate handicaps as causative factors in these conditions. Experience with better facilities for dealing with these problems at the time of their occurrence fully justifies the belief that perhaps we have overstressed in the past the element of constitutionality. At any rate, the etiologic problem of the so-called nervous child partakes of most of the characteristics of similar problems in psychopathology. Specific causation is the exception rather

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than the rule. Ordinarily, all kinds of issues combine to bring about the result. If this is true of the more clear-cut psychiatric entities, it must be more so of those which we group under the rather obscure designation of "nervousness." Adhering too rigidly to the notion of predetermination not only obscures the issue by lending an unwarranted gravity to what is often a fairly simple situation, but is likely to prove a considerable handicap in treatment.

What Is Maladjustment?

Here is a "skeleton presentation," as Mr. Lindemann calls it, of the conclusions of a three-days' discussion of the problem of maladjustment with the social workers of Buffalo. It is offered as the basis for further discussion.

THE term "maladjustment" is the pivot of the social worker's technique. The object of the social worker's ministrations is the individual or the group out of adjustment with the environment. The conflict between the individual or the group and the environment (natural and social) emerges when accommodation, adaptation or adjustment becomes difficult. The social technician must be an apt observer who is capable of discerning the incidence of failure to adjust. This process of observation will be aided if the emphasis is placed upon *un*adjustment rather than *mal*adjustment. Every individual and every group is at times out of adjustment with some section of the environment.

Maladjustment is simply chronic failure to adjust, and this term should be reserved for those cases which represent permanent disabilities which act as barriers in the adjusting process.

The social worker's task is conceived to be that of (1) discovering the factors entering into failure to adjust, (2) observing when unadjustment passes into maladjustment, (3) introducing habit-changing stimuli which may lead in the direction of integrating, evolving adjustments, (4) stimulating new forms of activity in the social environment leading toward the utilization of new activities on the part of the individual or the group, and (5) isolating chronic cases of unadjustment from the total social process. Numbers 3 and 4 are, of course, the tasks which involve inventiveness, imagination, creativeness. And it is precisely in this area that the greatest failures occur. Likewise, it is in this area that the pronounced tendency appears to stereotype and mechanize technique. It is suggested that more of the creative qualities of social work will come into being if increased attention is given to the nature of the adjusting process.

Adjustment becomes difficult when the individual finds himself in situations which exclude him from valid experience. Authoritative norms of behavior are never secure. If the individual develops the habit of accepting the experience of others in lieu of his own experience, he can make satisfactory adjustments only so long as the vicarious authority commands his absolute faith. Such forms of authority are increasingly rare. The only alternative is to create situations within the community which will afford every individual the opportunity to have an honest contact with vital experiences. In proportion to the increase of secondary modes of communication (telephone, telegraph, postal service, motion pictures, radio, etc.) there is certain to be an increased difficulty of providing situations which furnish first-hand social experiences.

Any situation which constitutes an unresolved conflict between old ways of behaving and new ways of behaving is an incidence of unadjustment. The bridge between orthodox, habitual behavior and the new or liberal behavior is filled with dangers. No one ever makes the crossing without serious difficulties. Unfortunately, those who have crossed this bridge are almost invariably unable to give a helpful account of how they either succeeded or failed. In a rapidly changing, dynamic society such as ours in which mobility accelerates at an astonishing pace every individual is crossing and re-crossing this bridge, and while the individual is on the bridge he is unadjusted. If he remains on the bridge for too long a period, he will find himself incapable of making proper adjustments to either side. Flying across the bridge or the stream in an aeroplane does not solve the problem.

The objective is not merely to get across the bridge but rather to know how one crossed and to be at home on the other side.

THE individual is socially unadjusted when he finds himself unable to integrate harmoniously with any or all of the groups which represent his vital interests. Nominal membership in a group constitutes a phase of unadjustment. Membership in a group which is sustained only upon the basis of continued opposition is also a phase of unadjustment.

Minorities may be roughly regarded as unadjusted groups, and the rule of the majority, which is a numerical rather than a qualitative mode of evaluating individuals, causes the adjusting process to be exceedingly difficult in organized, formalized groups. The chief difficulty with genetic groups such as the family is the frequency of downward adjustment; the family group is likely to make adjustments to the least capable member of the group with the result that the total group makes its adjustments on the lowest level. This same phenomenon is, of course, observable in neighborhood and community groupings in which the totality of groups is obliged to make adjustments downward to the least capable family or the least capable neighborhood.

An institution whose precepts, principles, and ideals are out of harmony with its activities is an unadjusted institution. This is obviously true of individuals as well as institutions, but most principles and ideals are generated by institutions and hence the failure to adjust must be regarded as a relation between the institution, its members, and their collective as well as their individual behavior. For example, an institution, one of whose ideals may be the brotherhood of man, may at the same time institute practises which place cleavages between man and man. Such an institution is unadjusted.

An institution whose functioning is dependent upon and conditioned by a perpetual conflict with other institutions within the same milieu is an unadjusted institution. Since the community is a complex of institutions and groups it becomes apparent that the community process is the totality of interactions of these institutions and groups. This process cannot become one of progressive adjustment so long as it is tacitly assumed that there are groups between which no form of accommodation is possible. There can be no

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adjustment where there is a deliberate program of separatism, and no adjustment means unadjustment. It should be noted that such forms of continuous dissociation are found frequently in the relations that exist between states or nations.

THESE illustrations do not by any means exhaust the series of unadjusted situations, or rather situations of unadjustment. In fact, there can be no final series. The viewpoint of the life-process which sees all activity in terms of adjustment involves both means and ends. The so-called ultimate ends of adjustment are beauty, truth, harmony, and goodness. (Others may wish to add loyalty, orderliness, etc., to the list of ends.) But there can be no ends which are beautiful, true, harmonious and good unless the means are also beautiful, true, harmonious and good. A progressively adjusted society is one which makes possible and profitable such experiences in and through which beauty, truth, harmony and goodness count for more than ugliness, error, conflict and evil. This does not mean that the negatives are to be eliminated, which is of course impossible; it merely means that a progressively adjusting society will provide methods for evaluating these ultimates or ends in terms of its means.

The purpose of this essay excludes the citation of examples or illustrations of the various situations of unadjustment, but it is suggested that social workers in discussion groups bring forth their own illustrations. This will tend to make the discussion and its results more practical. Following the listing of cases of unadjustment is the logical problem of solutions. It is at this point that creative, scientific imagination is needed. If social work is not to become itself an instance of maladjustment, its technique must remain a living, experimental process. Social engineering is an anomaly, for while the engineer may function in a manner extraneous to his materials, the social worker can never separate himself from the living, adjusting humanity of which he is a part. The principles of social work are more likely to evolve kinship with those of the artist than with those of the chemist.

E. C. LINDEMAN

"Leaflets Free On Request"

"REMEMBER the baby's future depends on father, as well as on mother. He must think of his part, while mother is thinking of hers." The visitor pushed the leaflet on Mental Health Hints for Parents down into the black depths of her pocket.

The girl's defiant voice went on. "They say he's on a boat in Japan, but I don't know. It was that gang of crap-shooters he used to pal with that told me. Anyway, he's been gone eight months and over now and I haven't had a line nor a penny from him since he left. It's been bad enough with one but now with another one nearly here I don't know what I'm going to do." Joseph crooned unconcernedly and dirtily in her lap, making vague efforts to suck his toe while his mother talked.

The girl and the boy had been to school together ever since they had been in the first grade. He hadn't been a bad sort, and they'd had a good time together. Then, when he was seventeen—he was a fighter and so big for his age that he could pass for twenty-one—he had joined the army.

After a year of cavalry service away down in Texas he had come home and they had "fallen for each other." ("It was in the army that he learned his badness. They say it makes a man of you, but I seen different. He wasn't the same, always scrapping, never contented, always restless and crazy for travel.") He hadn't stayed home long before he was off for some kind of trip, followed constantly by her letters asking him to marry her, "so that the baby could be born right."

Finally, one summer day, two weeks after it had arrived, he sauntered in.

"Yes, he married me when he got around to it, and all the good he did was to fix me this way again. Now he's cruising in Asia, wherever that is. Never told me nothing about it, just went. I don't care what happens to him but he's got to support his children. If he came back today, I'd tell him what's what and send him sprawling, you bet. I'd never let the kids look at him, all they'd learn from him would be badness and fighting."

The second paragraph of the pamphlet began saying itself in the visitor's mind. "Make up your minds that you will always speak kindly and in gentle tones to each other. If baby lives in a cross and wrangling world, it learns to be cross too. Make up your minds that you will agree with each other. Make up your minds that you will show only such feelings and behavior as you would like to have baby see and imitate. Talk over with each other how you will behave with the baby, how you will bring it up in its first few weeks and months and years."

The girl—she was only nineteen—had a hard light in her pale-blue eyes. "At night I just lie and worry. Where's the money coming from? I did work, but now the girls rubber and talk and wonder where *he* is. Then they don't want people who are as near as I am. Who's going to take care of Joseph while I'm in the hospital? The Polish lady next door looked after him while I was out at work, but she won't keep him nights. She knew about *him,* and the bum he is, so she didn't charge me nothing." ("You want the baby to be happy and sweet-tempered," warned the leaflet. "Be happy and sweet-tempered yourself.") The girl's voice went on, still bitter, "I didn't want them, but what was I going to do. Nobody ever told me nothing. My aunt married twice. Not me. Once'll do me all right."

The visitor knew that although there were laws and things, the authorities had said they could do nothing until the man's return to the country, whenever that might be. Once more the leaflet made antiphonal response. "Think of the reasons why you do want the baby. Make the world into which the baby is born a welcome world. The baby is coming into the world that you both are making for it. Make the world that the baby comes into a happy one."

As the visitor opened the door to go, the girl relented in sudden appeal. "Can't you do something? I don't want *him,* no, never. But I'd like to give *them* a chance." Out in the street, the visitor tore the crumpled mental health hints into pieces. As she threw them away, one with the large letters "THE BABY'S FUTURE" on it fluttered a bit before it settled a futile heap with the rest.

JANE PERRY CLARK

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The Common Welfare

WHO pays the bill for benevolence? And how much is it? Short of the angel who comforted Abou ben Adhem by the display of his excellently kept ledger, nobody knows. The answer is hidden away in the records—good, bad and indifferent—of thousands on thousands of public and private agencies from Aroostook to Arizona. Some, supported by faith and prayer, disdain even to keep a cash account. A prominent citizen of New York told an investigator some years ago that the accounts of the committee which he honored with his patronage were kept under his hat.

There is no answer to be had even when the questions are narrowed to a single community. Often the "financial survey" which is instigated by people interested in financial federation gives a city its first inkling as to the total given for local philanthropic purposes; the task of discovering how many givers have a share even in a limited number of established and reputable agencies may take weeks of effort. And when a community has crystallized its normal giving into the annual campaign of a city-wide federation there remain outside all the tabulations dozens or hundreds of marginal appeals, each nibbling away at the public purse. Yet thanks to the American Association for Community Organization we are beginning to get significant facts as to the money given in some American cities and as to the manner of its giving.

IT is startling to learn from a recent bulletin of this association how completely private social agencies are still dependent on the privileged minority who can give liberally. Sixty-two community funds received last year a total of $29,000,000 from 1,549,889 givers. Three-tenths of one per cent of the givers—4,065 persons—gave 37.9 per cent of the whole amount; these were the men and women who contributed a thousand dollars or more apiece. Six-tenths of one per cent of the givers gave $14,257,173—just short of half the total—in amounts of $500 or over. Those who gave $100 or more, less than 3 per cent of all the givers, were responsible for 67.5 per cent of the entire sum.

We have heard much—and rightly—of the enormous extension of the number of givers in federation cities. In Chattanooga, Tenn., and Morristown, N. J., (the figures are necessarily approximate) one out of every three residents was a giver in the joint campaign last year. Cities as large as Cleveland and Cincinnati show a ratio of one giver to every five inhabitants. Without doubt the joint campaign enlists the support of hundreds of thousands who have never before identified themselves with the community enterprise to the extent of making an individual contribution. Yet the fact remains that it is still the large giver who keeps social work solvent.

It would be easy—and futile—to generalize from these statistics. Perhaps they merely reflect the traditional formula, let him that hath give to him that hath not, and there is no reason to expect any change so long as society is ordered on its present basis. Correlation of these figures with our somewhat fragmentary knowledge of the distribution of income would throw some light on that point. Perhaps they reveal an alarming dependence on the favor of the philanthropic rich: should they lose interest, or should the defensive reactions of capital become more prominent, or should their sons and daughters develop a taste for art museums rather than hospitals, what would become of the present apparatus for betterment? Perhaps the implications of minority control which seem inherent in this situation are balanced by less obvious factors. Perhaps personality and prestige are more powerful in the life of the community than dollars and cents. We do not know enough, yet, to read the answer. When this sort of analysis has been made year after year in many more cities and towns we shall be better able to see in what direction we are moving.

But we need such facts, and more of them, if we are to understand the nature and limits of community action for the common good. Through the winter The Survey will draw on the experience of men and women who have touched the problem of social finance at close range in the hope not of developing theories, nor of merely recording technique, but of bringing to light some of the available and significant facts.

ALTHOUGH the community trust is, as yet, a minor element in this structure of social finance, its potential influence is so great that its early steps in New York, for instance, are being watched with much interest. The New York Community Trust, whose reorganization The Survey reported a few months ago, has announced the personnel of its distribution committee, which is charged with the responsibility of collecting and supervising the expenditure of the income produced by capital funds entrusted to the member banks and trust companies for public use. Among the ten members (another is to be added on the nomination of Mayor Hylan) one social worker, Homer Folks, is to be found; several others have been intimately associated with both local and national philanthropies in the capacity of board member or officer. Mrs. August Belmont stands for the Red Cross; Felix M. Warburg holds a central position in Jewish social enterprises; Dr. Walter B. James brings intimate knowledge of health work especially in tuberculosis and mental hygiene; John G. Agar is identified with many Catholic and non-sectarian agencies. It happens that two of the ten are among the directors of the S. P. C. C. One regrets that even on this first committee there should not be one or two much younger members, for the service

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of the trust—even its possession of capital—lies mostly in the future, and there is probably less danger of rash error than of over-conservatism in the conduct of an enterprise of this sort. Its value as an alternative to the eccentric bequest and the dead hand depends largely upon its flexibility in adapting itself to changing conditions and advancing social technique. The trust can count among its assets, however, a close and varied acquaintance on the part of the committee with current social enterprises.

EMOTIONS ran high at the constitutional convention of the Y. M. C. A., held last month in Cleveland. It is well enough to say that functional and financial efficiency in a nation-wide organization depends upon sound relationships between national headquarters, field forces, and local units. But when those relationships, built up through more than half a century, have been shot through with old loyalties, fresh rebellions, faction and the bitter politics of serious men, it is no light task to reshape them. Here was an organization with its roots in some two thousand communities in the United States and Canada, dealing with property worth nearly $150,000,000, in contact with similar movements in most of the countries of the globe, and administratively tangled almost beyond repair. The international committee was responsible only indirectly to the local associations. There were also in the United States 43 state and interstate organizations, 3 Y. M. C. A. colleges, 8 summer training conferences, and a number of standing committees and boards—in all, 56 separate and uncoordinated field agencies. State organizations not only bore an anomalous relation to the international committee but had often been in virtual competition with it. National enterprises divided local support—not always without friction—with autonomous local groups.

The constitutional changes adopted by the convention, and now referred to the local associations for ratification, can only be summarized here. They were based on these principles:

that the interests of the whole movement are greater than those of any one part; that, while recognizing the need for state service, only a unified agency service can be effective; that the committees for general agencies should not be self-perpetuating bodies but elected by the local associations themselves; that there must be unity in program and in financing of general agencies.

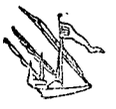
Government of the entire movement in the United States and Canada is now to be vested in a national council of from 350 to 400 members elected directly by the local associations, on a numerical basis of representation. This body will draw up a program for the various national services, approve their budgets, and assign to the local associations their share of income to be raised for national and international purposes. The local units, in turn, accept responsibility for meeting the quotas thus fixed by their own representatives. Agency services on a national basis are decentralized and coordinated; the state committees and their secretaries remain partly independent, but are brought under the supervision of the national council. A judicial body is set up to decide inter-organization controversies.

The convention did not alter the basis on which individual members may be received by the Y. M. C. A., though the question was specifically referred to it by the last triennial conference at Atlantic City. The more liberal delegates were unable to secure a majority vote for their proposal to substitute, for the requirement of membership in an evangelical Christian church which now obtains in all but student associations, a more flexible declaration of personal religious attitude. The matter goes back, however, to the next triennial meeting in 1925 for renewed consideration.

The decision of the convention was unanimous on the plan for reorganization, and men who witnessed the tremendous burst of enthusiasm which greeted its adoption feel that the Y. M. C. A. made great gains in unity, threw off much of the political feeling which had hampered its effectiveness, and saw more clearly than ever before the way to constructive service.

PUZZLING as are the problems of an intricate social mechanism like the Y. M. C. A., they are lucid beside the complexity of the social work situation in New York. Here one finds a very whirlpool of competitive and uncoordinated activity. Tradition and existing forms of organization make strongly for individualistic action, and put no small obstacles in the way of cooperation. Little ententes and minor leagues have grown up here and there, but many years will pass before the pattern of a coherent social program begins to emerge. The same, of course, is true of the world's international relations, and Better Times, the organ of New York social agencies, has tackled the problem in just the way Mr. Bok threw himself into the fight for peace. It is offering a prize of $1000 for the most practicable plan for coordinating social effort in New York, with due reference not only to cooperation in specific projects but to the better covering of neglected fields of work and a better understanding on the part of the public of what it is all about.

It is true that recurrent efforts to devise a wholesale coordinating-machine for New York have come, thus far, to nothing visible. It is true also, as Robert W. de Forest and Homer Folks said at the annual Better Times dinner, that cooperation is a thing of the spirit rather than a formula. The dinner and the speakers themselves were evidence of the existence of the spirit. Furthermore the examples of successful community organization point almost without exception to the necessity of growth from within rather than the external application of a paper plan. But the offer is too good to cavil at; it is sound sense to emphasize the fact that this problem of New York's is not to be solved in conventional ways, but demands special study and a bold imagination. And there is something engaging about the fashion in which this young journal, firmly grasping a juicy bait, wades gaily out into the maelstrom of New York social work and fishes hopefully for leviathan.



WHEN someone with an agile mind has discovered the way to put the picture-puzzle of New York together neatly, we commend to him (or her) the problem of state welfare administration and financing. How, for example, is the balance to be struck between economy—to

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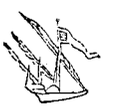
which every taxpayer wistfully turns his eyes—and the progressive acceptance by the state of new responsibilities for child care, health promotion and a score of other kinds of public weal? Governor Smith of New York, speaking at the Better Times dinner, dealt neatly with the charge of his opponents that he had added to the state's payrolls. "It gives me great pleasure, wherever I speak, to admit the truth of that charge," he said. "The new employes were nurses and attendants in the state's institutions." But it is not always so simple. In California an economy budget gravely handicapped the whole state's welfare progress; though local circumstances there gave the governor's policy a sinister color, the call for more rigorous control of public expenditure is often supported by the most disinterested students of government.

If we understand recent tendencies in the discussion of the better administrative organization of state governments, they favor the grouping of administrative functions into a few compact units, the centering of control in individual department heads, and the placing of responsibility squarely on the chief executive of the state by giving him as nearly as possible a free hand in appointing those department heads. The recent reorganization in New York and Pennsylvania has clearly illustrated this formula. With Pinchot and Smith the results have on the whole been encouraging to friends of good government. In Ohio, however, the centering of responsibility in the governor has resulted in a situation in the state department of welfare which causes them much concern. The Survey has recently reported the case of Mrs. Stannard (August 15, 1923, p. 527), an able executive, warmly supported by informed citizens throughout the state, who was displaced in the best style of last-century politics.

THE Ohio Welfare Conference, which met last month at Lima, attacked this situation by proposing a change in the administrative organization of the department of public welfare. The director of that department is now appointed by the governor, sits as a member of his cabinet, and shares his political fortunes. The conference believed that under such an agreement the interests of partisan politics would inevitably take precedence over other considerations in the appointment of heads of institutions and of the rank and file of their staffs. The plan which the conference voted to support would retain the director of public welfare as a one-man executive, but would entrust his appointment to a welfare board of seven members, appointed in rotation, one each year, by the governor. Since the governor holds office for two years only two of the seven places could be filled by any one governor in a single term. The administration of the department would thus become, it is hoped, as non-partisan as that of the state university.

This is an ingenious combination of one-man management with semi-autonomous control of a state department. It should avoid the difficulties of many-headed administration. It may be the best way out of an immediate mess. But we should like to hear from some of the civic leaders who have been preaching, in season and out, that the only way for an electorate to get good government in the long run is to center responsibility squarely in the man they elect, and take their medicine if they elect the wrong man. Are they on the wrong track? Ohio has an interesting opportunity to correlate present-day theories of sound govenmental organization with the discouraging present-day facts of her experience.

Fortunately the state has a large, organized and interested body of citizens before which this recommendation can be placed for intelligent consideration. The Ohio League of Women Voters and the Federation of Women's Clubs have been keenly on the scent of partisan influence in welfare administration and took a lively part in the test case of Mrs. Stannard. The social workers in conference have requested all the political parties "to adopt this humane, non-partisan program as a plank in each of their programs." The political organizations are not insensible to the outspoken opinion of large groups of voters. If the women of Ohio decide that this plan is sound, and speak their minds, they are likely to put it through.



BETWEEN the turn of the leaves and Indian summer, it is pleasant to lay aside the vexatious business of cooperation in good works for the lighter theme of cooperation for good times. At Bear Mountain Inn, which Major Welch of the New York-New Jersey Interstate Park has made something like the capital of the American out-of-doors, a group of not-too-serious people gathered recently to talk about the construction of an Appalachian Trail. All along the northern line of hills that breaks the surface of the Atlantic states walking clubs and park commissions have been threading trails through the forest and over rocky cliffs and across old gullies where roads ran, perhaps, when Washington was a soldier in the field. Within an hour and a half of New York the hiker can swing his pack on his back and disappear on a trail which will lead him on for perhaps two full days almost without sight of an automobile. Benton MacKaye, brother of the playwright, conceived a year or two ago the plan of linking up these fragments of trail and pushing them through unmarked country into one continuous foot-path leading from Ktaadn—as the walkers prefer to spell Maine's famous mountain—clear down the ridges to Georgia.

The plan has far-reaching corollaries of regional planning and industrial development, and with the support of the committee on community planning of the "American Institute of Architects (whose chairman, Clarence S. Stein, is now wrestling with housing in New York), and the service of foot and hand offered by out-door clubs, a beginning has been made on the trail itself. Of its possible 2000 miles something like 500 are already built, needing only markers and intermediate links. Some of the clubs, proud of their individual trail-markers, have been a bit reluctant to merge the work of their axes and tramping feet in a trail without local identity. But it is hoped that they will agree on the neat A-T monogram which will point the way all along the trail.

The much-advertised motor highways are thronged with little cars and limousines whose passengers pour money into

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the tills of the bluebook inns and the hot-dog stands, according to their kind. It pays to advertise them. Chambers of commerce and innkeepers may have little interest in the long brown footpath; walkers spend red corpuscles, not coin, and collect the profits themselves. But just as the highways have stimulated the polite adventure of touring so these trails lure each year more and more city-folk into the woods. The Long Trail over the Green Mountains, for example, has become an elongated Mecca for New Yorkers who find holidays afoot. The Appalachian Trail will be built and kept clear by thousands of folk who work for love and relish it; it will advertise the sun and wind and pine-needles; it will beckon to bankers and bad boys and social workers; it may prove more potent in making men fit to work together than all the coordinators in the country.

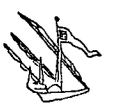
THERE was a lively tilt over child labor in the beet fields at the Michigan State Conference of Social Work held in Kalamazoo in October. An investigation made last year by the National Child Labor Committee brought out the unsanitary conditions under which numbers of migratory laborers' families lived during the season, the irregular schooling of the children of these families and the extent to which boys and girls of from 10 to 16 years of age and even less were worked. The committee's findings were subsequently challenged by a committee of the Michigan legislature which itself made a tour of the beet districts.

The speakers at Kalamazoo included Owen R. Lovejoy of the National Child Labor Committee; Charles H. Culver of Detroit, chairman of the legislative committee; Gerritt J. Diekema of Holland, former congressman and president of a sugar beet company; and Carl Young, commissioner of the Department of Labor of Michigan.

The more heated part of the discussion had to do with a statement made by the National Committee's investigators that they had found young children who had had the ends of their fingers cut off with heavy cropping knives. This had been played up by the newspapers at the time the original press releases were given out. The position of the National Child Labor Committee was that this physical damage was of small moment compared with the educational damage which resulted from disrupting the school year of hundreds of children and putting hundreds of others at premature labor. However, the fat was in the fire; and both agitators against the iniquities of industry on the one hand and defenders of the sugar-beet interests on the other were soon in full cry. The fair name of Michigan got all wrapped up in the issue; and unfortunately for the Child Labor Committee the notes of its field agent were in Denver at the time of a hearing of the legislative committee at Lansing last spring; and a letter giving the necessary data seems to have miscarried in some way in the mails. At any rate, the result was that the impression got abroad that the National Child Labor Committee had been faking and could not deliver the goods. Six months later, Mr. Diekema in his address at Kalamazoo, which was alternately hortatory and persuasive and ranged from the infantile industry of Chauncey M. Depew to the iniquities of the cane sugar barons, labored under this impression, and made the most of it. In rebuttal, after covering various other criticisms. Mr. Lovejoy called an associate to the floor who gave names and counties for three children who had suffered such self-injury. The incident was a dramatic one, at the close of a long session. Since then certain Michigan newspapers have carried stories to the effect that the children or their cut fingers can't be found.

Mr. Young, the state labor commissioner, added to the liveliness of the debate at Kalamazoo by pointing out that the state legislative committee made its tour in March when the ground was frozen and the migratory workers were away; and further that the report of the Federal Children's Bureau more than corroborated the findings of the National Child Labor Committee with respect to conditions in the beet fields.

Among the 681 families visited by the investigators of the latter body, 1,358 boys and girls from 5 to 16 years of age were found working on the crop. Of these, at one time or another in the season, 1,336 children were employed in pulling beets which is a very strenuous part of the work. Of this number 868 were under thirteen years of age, 564 were not more than ten years old, and 52 of them were only six.



A CITY is like a pipe-organ; if you know your stops and your keyboards you can draw on an infinitely varied range of resources to produce the effect you want. But most of us have learned only to play on one finger and to punch the tremolo button at regular intervals. Few community leaders have begun to combine their materials with the precision and foresight that their grandchildren may achieve. Who can tell us, to pick a single example, how the Rotarians and Shriners and their variegated fellows in scores of organizations are going to contribute their distinctive note to the social symphony?

That particular question is so interesting that The Survey hopes later to assemble some of the available materials for an answer. At the moment it is worth noting that Rochester has had an immensely valuable community experience because a few business and professional groups were jointly interested in finding out what was really being accomplished in work for children. The survey made by Henry W. Thurston and his associates—a survey which probes deeply into the actual results of a great quantity of earnest effort—is reviewed in this issue on p. 197. It grew out of the initiative of a group, interested in intelligent community planning, which has remained anonymous; it was carried through by the united efforts of the Gyro, Kiwanis, Lions, Rotary, Zonta and Women's City Clubs. Once the evidence was in, these same clubs appointed a sub-committee to promote the formation of a child welfare council such as Dr. Thurston recommends.

The curious situation in Rochester, where although a strong community chest has been in operation since the war there is as yet no council of social agencies, makes it uncertain at present just how this proposal will be linked up with the growing movement for direct relations between the

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social agencies of the city. Opinion is divided as to the wisdom of launching first the single functional group or permitting that to grow out of a general council. Good progress is being made on that problem; in the meantime Rochester has gained a new element among its social resources: an organized group of business men and women, willing to be guided by expert advice in their approach to social problems, conscious of their own force and their own responsibility for playing a part in the city's social effort, and for the present aiming at a definite objective.

SELDOM has the transcendent gift of interpretation been so exemplified as at the Chicago City Club this last month when the head worker of Hull House gave her impressions of social and political ferment in the Orient. The large dining-room was filled with friends and fellow workers and at the close of the meal another room-full poured in upon them. There was a freshness, an openness, a genuineness to this welcome home that gripped you with the sense that neighborliness has not passed out of the life of the great city. Its genii are still within call to those who rub its lamp. And from the earliest settlements on, the gift of the neighbor that has transcended all others has been not to preach, nor to teach, nor to correct, nor even to help, but to interpret.

The founder of Hull House, who has made articulate the spirit of youth and the city streets, has helped voice the aspirations of Greek and Italian, and other immigrant groups, has won a hearing for the consciences of women and the struggles of working men, applied that gift which is hers in such full measure to the cross-currents in the life of the Far East. Any who came anticipating that she would pass judgment on the issues which baffle folk in India, China and Japan, went away disappointed. She did not tell them in the vernacular of the day where to get off. She confessed that it was too soon for her to crystalize even her impressions. Rather she dissolved the cartoon-like shapes in which we personify a people; she brought out their inveterate humanness, their divisions among themselves, the things they are striving for and around. And, as in the Greek tragedies, the picture she left was not so much of St. Georges and Dragons, but rather of a clash between lives which on neither hand were without high purpose and nobility. This does not mean that Miss Addams showed herself unaware of inconsistencies between principles and practice or unconscious of selfish interests which bedevil evolutionary change. Nor lacked friendly humor at the perplexities in which good people find themselves—or at the tit they offer for the tat of foreign criticisms. Those tired conservatives of the Orient, for example, (being upside down from us they may very properly be called that); those people in high places and middling places in the Indes, who have been holding on to the tie-strings of civilization in these post-war years and who privately express regret that in a hasty war-time moment an American president let the cat of self-determination out of the bag. There are so many bags in the East and such a variety of cats, and the tie-strings have a habit of flying around so unexpectedly!

In the Philippines, to illustrate, Miss Addams was assured on all hands that 98 per cent of the offices are held by the Filipinos. Only 2 per cent by Americans. But those 2 per cent are the crux of the government. The Americans say exactly what the English say in India and believe it as thoroughly: that they are merely holding on until such time as the Filipinos can run their own affairs. The Filipinos say the time is come now. And there you are.

MISS ADDAMS pictured the complexities of China: on the one hand the military governors (set up by the former president who wanted to be emperor) now swollen with power and sending little money to the central government; and on the other hand Sun Yat Sen, in the south, with his liberal platform, to whom the Chinese of our own cities, touched as they are with our western ideas, are devoted, but who is as yet without compelling support on Asiatic soil. In the meanwhile, banditry, and the pleasant confession of the bandits to their American captives that they learned how to do it from an American movie. And as a footnote, the remark to Miss Addams of an elderly Chinese admiral, who thought that if the world would give China time the Chinese would work their way out. He had once been captured by bandits himself he admitted —in the 70's on a train in the West which was held up by our own Jesse James! Similarly she told of American impatience at the slowness of the Chinese in arriving at a workable constitution and of the soft-spoken reminder of the 13 years that dragged between 1776 and 1789. She told of the observance of Humiliation Day as she had witnessed it in China, anniversary of the enforcement of the twenty-two demands by Japan, and of a mass meeting of Korean women—their slogan, Korea for the Koreans—which she felt was a match for any patriotic gathering she had ever witnessed elsewhere. And then of the liberal party in Japan, and of the council of eight Japanese organizations of which the former Mayor of Tokio has been a vigorous member, which is fighting the imperialists. In Japan Miss Addams had the distinction of being publicly received and officially welcomed for her services in the cause of peace. She had been received, she remarked, elsewhere in spite of being a pacifist, but never before because she was one.

The members of these active Japanese organizations are not convinced pacifists perhaps, but they are for further reduction in armaments. We fail to appreciate, she said, the way the Japanese took to heart the world wide reaction to German militarism during the war, and are applying it to their own navalism; fail to realize how seriously the people of China and Japan look upon the Washington conference; or how jealously the Japanese point to their evacuation of Shantung in their eagerness to prove their good faith to Americans. She told of the spread of education in Japan (until today they have surpassed us with 98 per cent of their children in school), of the rise of social work there, and of the agitation for the franchise among the working classes and among the women.

In general, Miss Addams brought back from these movements for larger self-expression in the various countries a realization that the Orient is entering very roundly upon some of those political and social conceptions which we ourselves hold.

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It was in her interpretation of India that Miss Addams manifested her gift most strikingly: for first of all she made her auditors see the situation as the English see it—marking the change with which the leaders among them approach their stewardship. They came, they told her, not as the English of another generation, to settle there as rulers, but to prepare the way for self-government; and they found it a very much more interesting thing to do—this work of preparation. Mrs. Besant, who a few years ago was regarded as an arch-agitator, today has very much the odor of sanctity and is sharing in the constitutional movement; insisting that she herself has not changed but that the British government has moved along. Gandhi, Miss Addams did not attempt to see, as in his confinement he is limited to two callers every three months and his wife is one of these. But it was not necessary to see Gandhi to be aware of his presence as a force in the life of the people. He of all men on the face of the earth at present is the most widely known, most dearly beloved. Of this an official gave her curious evidence. She had thought she knew something of poverty, but it was as nothing to the poverty of the fellaheen. And this official told her that in districts so far removed from the centers, fellaheen, so low in the scale that they were unaware that the English were in India, knew of Gandhi—of a man who wished to save them from their wretchedness. Lord Redding told her that at one time he had talked six hours with Gandhi and considered him the most wonderful man he had ever met. Miss Addams pointed out the distinction between non-resistance and the non-cooperation of Gandhi and between the two branches of his followers. But it would be unfair to attempt to follow her interpretation of the Indian movement. That she will do in her own way and at her own time.

While the white caps of Gandhists once worn by the hundreds of thousands are now somewhat abandoned, the moral energy which flows from their willingness to sacrifice persists. This was perhaps the most indelible impression she left with her hearers.

THREE YEARS AGO the crippled finances of Europe threatened its educational institutions with disruption. Young men and women who would normally have enrolled for university training had no funds to meet their expenses. The European Student Relief, backed largely by American college students, undertook to meet this situation as its contribution to the intellectual life of Europe. To the needy university students it brought food, clothing, books, medicine. In three years' operation it has aided 105,000 out of a total student population of 500,000 in seventeen countries.

But its most important achievement has been the development of self-help. From the start it took the stand that since its funds were in a large measure contributed by self-supporting students, it could help only such students as were willing to help themselves. This was radical in the extreme. The pre-war European student considered it a disgrace to support himself. A few engaged in gentlemanly tutoring, but prejudice was strong against manual work. But facing the alternative of having to withdraw from the universities, these students first reluctantly, then enthusiastically proceeded to throw over the traditions of generations.

IT IS REAL LABOR that these European students turn to—not mere white-collar employment. They are working as stevedores, baggage smashers, street cleaners. They have established their own shoe and clothing repair shops, print shops, soap and ink factories. In many countries they have organized cooperative stores and kitchens, where supplies are sold at much below their price elsewhere. In Russia alone these kitchens, manned almost entirely by students, are serving 31,000 members of the universities.

In Hungary they are operating electrical repair shops, millinery shops, a university laundry, motion-picture house and printing press. The crowning achievement of these Hungarian students, however, is a shop for school supplies, which was opened with a capital of 2,000 crowns. Today it has a monthly turnover of twelve million crowns, handling shoes, men's furnishings, shirts, caps and ties.

In Czechoslovakia a group of students built ten dormitories with their own hands. Polish students have a publishing plant that has turned out a large part of the textbooks used in their country since the war.

In Germany the students have organized a national self-help bureau, which finds seasonal work for students. When the holidays come, sixty thousand mobilize into small armies—some going into the coal mines with pick and shovel, some into the forests to chop down trees, some into the fields.

In Latvia the government has arranged for employment of all students in need. University lectures are scheduled from seven to ten in the morning and from four to nine in the evening, giving the students six hours to work. Fully 80 per cent of the students at the university of Riga were thus employed at one time.

Less than three years ago no efficient national student self-help organization existed. To-day students have established such organizations in Poland, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Austria and Hungary. Self-help has become dignified and respected. The "work student" is a recognized factor throughout Europe to-day. Education is no longer for the few, but for every man and woman who is willing to work his way.

It would seem that with this accomplished the European Student Relief would now be able to withdraw. So it would, except for the continued instability of currency. Hundreds who worked during the summer to earn enough to carry them through the winter term suddenly discovered that their savings were practically wiped out by another disastrous fall in the value of money. If the European Student Relief were now to cut short its activities, hundreds would have to withdraw from the universities because the self-help enterprises so painfully built up through the past few years would fall to pieces for lack of working capital with which to begin the winter. For this reason it plans to continue its work of feeding, clothing and cheering on these ambitious young men and women for at least another year.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Rochester Looks Experience in the Eye

EXPERIENCE, though admittedly a good teacher, has one limitation. She functions only when one looks her squarely in the eye. Veiled with sentimentalism, experience becomes the veriest coquette. It is only when our experiences are gathered together in some orderly fashion, and only when we are willing to take a good, long, steady look at them that we see or learn much. It was to see what unveiled experience would teach that a study was undertaken last year of a group of delinquent children in Rochester, New York. It was carried on under the direction of Henry W. Thurston and under the auspices of the Child Welfare League of America.

The inquiry had its origin in a desire to learn what more could be done to prevent juvenile delinquency in Rochester. While some attention was paid to analysing the familiar factors in delinquency as they presented themselves in Rochester, the distinctive feature of the inquiry was the effort to find out just how much had been accomplished by those who have sought to check undesirable juvenile behavior and to redirect children into more socially acceptable channels of activity. To quote Mr. Thurston:

> Each child has been thought of as being on a journey in company with his brothers and sisters and parents and neighborhood companions, through all the weeks of each year of his life. The members of the survey staff were on the alert all the time to discover, so far as possible, as it were, the switching points on each child's life journey where he first left the main track. Also it was a part of their quest to locate, along his road in the direction of habitual delinquency, as many as possible of the way stations where he has been, temporarily at least, stopped by Attendance Officers, S. P. C. C., Visiting Teachers, Juvenile Court, and other agencies. How long was he delayed at these stations? What effort was made to get him permanently switched back upon the main track going in the right direction under his own and his family's head of steam? How successful were these efforts? If unsuccessful, merely delaying the boy or girl a few days or weeks from pursuing his former journey toward permanent delinquency, why were their efforts unsuccessful? What more can be done by Rochester agencies for other children at like switching points from the right road, and at similar way stations along the wrong road, to help other children in future to switch permanently back upon the right road again?

In the familiar language of social service, what has been accomplished through case work, first, for the child and his family, and second, for the prevention of similar situations in the future?

The children whose careers and contacts with social agencies were to be studied were selected by a sampling method. All the delinquent children who came into the juvenile court and the city court, and all those who came to the attention of the Society to Protect Children from Cruelty, the Visiting Teachers and the Big Sister Council during a week in January, a week in April and a week in August 1921, were listed. To these were added several individuals at the special request of one or more of the city's social agencies. After the non-delinquents and the non-residents were eliminated there were 125 cases on the list for special study. From these, 28 cases of low mentality were dropped. The investigation of 28 others had to be abandoned for reasons of various sorts which had no reference to the type of case or the manner of handlng. Five of the 125 were found to be duplicates. After these eliminations there remained 64 cases for special, intensive study. These children were, according to the judge of the juvenile court, the superintendents of the S. P. C. C. and the visiting teachers, "fairly inclusive samples of all the juvenile delinquents known to them." In the families to which these 64 children belonged there were 248 other children of whom 137 were younger than the children studied.

Of the 64 families no one had been known to less than two social agencies, including schools; the average number of agencies, counting the different public and parochial schools each as a separate agency, is nine plus. Beside the courts, the S. P. C. C., the schools and the reformatories, other social agencies such as the city Department of Charities, the Social Welfare League and the health agencies had taken a hand in helping a large proportion of these families. One family had been in contact with eighteen agencies of which six were schools, three parochial and three public. Quoting the report:

> It may well be questioned whether any other single fact brought out by the study is so full of suggestion as this one of what ought to be done in Rochester that is not now done to cut down the percentage of children who become delinquent. An average of 9 plus social agencies, private and public, to say nothing of the church, taking a turn at trying to direct each delinquent child into the straight and narrow way: can it be possible that there have been any conflicts in advice as to the actual steps the child's feet should take to lead him most directly to the door opening upon this way?

The survey staff studied each of these 64 families and the 64 delinquent children in particular, first from the records of various agencies as they had recorded their observations, analyses and the various remedies that had been applied, and second, from personal visits to the families and the children. The visits brought the record down to date. Brothers, sisters and companions were interviewed whenever there was reason to think that these could throw light on the child's most recent developments. It was hoped that by thus following the child after his "exposure" to social and health work, it might be discovered just how effective those efforts had been.

When the child's whole story, background and foreground, had been duly set down, the surveyor then appended a list of the agencies that had at one time or another been in contact with the child, and finally, a list of questions which suggest, as the report says, "points of departure for recommendations of changes in method in Rochester." One of these 64 case studies is printed in the accompanying box.

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While in the report it is pointed out that the number of cases is too small to be used as a basis for statistical conclusions or averages, a tabulation on the facts regarding recreation was made. It was found that special mention of a helpful influence by clubs was found in 7 instances, of playgrounds in 5, or parks in 4, and of church influence in 13. "In only 7 distinct instances is mention made of special effort that was put forth by social workers to interest the young delinquent in some form of wholesome supervised recreation. Even in these 7 cases no special mention is made of an effort at the same time to educate the parents and secure their cooperation to the same end." On the other hand, among harmful influences the improper use of an amusement park outside the city is mentioned 11 times, pool rooms and misuse of movies, 17 times, street corners, 25 times, and gangs, 12 times.

It should be an especially challenging fact to social workers dealing with these delinquent children to note that in at least 32 out of 64 families the parents were found not to have an appreciation of the worth of supervised recreation, and apparently made no attempt to provide safe and wholesome recreation for their children, either within the home or from the resources of the community outside the home.—It is the opinion of the survey staff that social case workers, recreation leaders, and parents could, with positive gain to the children, have given more attention, both as individuals and in cooperation with each other, to the spare time opportunities and the use of them by every one of the 64 children carefully studied.

In the presentation of all of the other findings of the study Dr. Thurston and his colleagues followed the method of printing 6 cases selected from the 64, and of calling the reader's attention particularly to the queries at the end of each one. All of the questions raised by the other 58 cases were classified according to their subjects.

At the end of each question appeared the number of the story that suggested it, thus relating it directly to the lives of real boys and girls. The questions that follow are illustrative:

1. How could intelligent parents have been blind to these cumulative danger signals about their boy: (a) Dislike of first school? (b) Growing truancy? (c) Presentation to them of the boy's truancy problem by the second principal? (d) Lack of personal supervision even while yet in school? (e) Combined idleness and lack of supervision after he had been suspended from school?
2. Could the church ten years ago have come to the aid of this widow who was not in financial need, but, by the suicide of her husband, was left with four girls, two to eleven years old? Could not the understanding and continuous acquaintance, encouragement, and advice of some person from the church have helped her wage her double battle as breadwinner and sole parent during these critical years?
3. Does suspension or expulsion from school nullify the law requiring a boy of fifteen to be either at school or at work?
4. What respect can father and boy have for courts when the father, brought into police court twice for not sending his boy to school, evades his own responsibility by in turn taking his boy into the Juvenile Court for non-attendance, by receiving in succession five special work permits on condition he attend continuation school, which condition he in large part has disregarded and evaded?
5. Can dependent and delinquent children in the Shelter be segregated from each other? Statement is made that this girl learned much evil and ease in running away, from her contact with older delinquent girls whom she met in the Shelter.
6. Why did the attempted efforts of library and scouts fail to attract and hold this boy? Why are the neighborhood and street gangs better organized, longer lived, and more effective, from a destructive standpoint, than are some of our attempted boys' clubs, from a constructive standpoint?
7. What personal knowledge of the home life of this boy did the Y. M. C. A. have? The boy says he often spent mornings at the Y. M. C. A. If so, was it not their duty to check up on his school attendance?
8. As this mother, with sick husband, three boys, and such poverty that she herself had to go out to work, was known to the church, to the Department of Charities, and to the S. P. C. C. eight years ago, could she not have had such an understanding, persistent personal friendship and help in the care and training of her children from some one or more of these sources that she could have been at home more and could thus have helped to keep the children from truancy?
9. Should not some of these agencies in touch with a family where the mother was known to be abnormal have kept a closer and more constant supervision of the children growing up in such a home? What agency can develop workers with special skill in dealing with persons of abnormal mentality?
10. Is it necessary for a girl to live through an experience such as this girl did to "find out about things"?
11. Do the citizens of Rochester anticipate any trouble ten years from now with the children of B. and her sister? Is there any way to begin now the education of such young wives as to influence toward good citizenship their infant and unborn children?
12. What chance is there that Rochester can make good citizens of such a growing family of boys, of such parents, in such a neighborhood as is shown by the case on the opposite page, by a series of spasmodic and unrelated, though earnest and energetic efforts, made over a period of years by a dozen or more different agencies?

After discussing the complex character of the underlying causes of juvenile delinquency and the futility of looking to a single form of cure or prevention to clear up this problem, Mr. Thurston points out that "Nothing short of doing the understanding and adequate thing at the right time for every child of delinquent tendencies can possibly prevent delinquency." Parents, churches, schools and social agencies in Rochester, as in every other community in the United States, have been contributory factors to the delinquency of particular children to the extent that they have failed to act when there should have been action or when their action has been unwise or inadequate. As a method of getting down to bed rock, Mr. Thurston recommends that each agency in the case-work and recreation field make an intensive study of its own work. This should cover its personnel and facilities, its cooperation with other agencies and its methods of studying and treating each child.

As a method of improving the team play between agencies it is suggested that a comprehensive Child Welfare Council be developed out of the present efforts toward cooperation. This should include all the case-working agencies and those dealing with juvenile recreation. This council should hold frequent periodic case conferences of all the workers dealing simultaneously or in succession with an individual child or his family. Thus can action be analysed and coordinated; and the better ways can be spread from one agency to another. It is tentatively suggested that the provision of an executive officer and a staff would stimulate, unify and develop the efforts of the council, and would be a means of helping member agencies study their program, policies, methods and accomplishments.

While it is more than likely that there is not a question

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Eight Boys and a Dozen Agencies

A Typical Case from the Rochester Child Welfare Survey

IN 1917 an Italian mother of six boys, then from two to ten years old, complained to the S. P. C. C. that A, then seven, and J, then ten, would not mind her, and asked that they be locked up. The boys were seen and reprimanded.

At that time the father, a musician aged 49, and the mother, 25, lived in five first-floor rooms of a house they were buying at the rate of $200 a year. They rented the upstairs rooms to lodgers; their total weekly income was $30. The mother did not work out. The father had been in this country 21 years, the mother since infancy.

A year before the complaint to the S. P. C. C. various members of the family had received medical care in the dispensary department of the General Hospital. Three months later the Homeopathic Hospital gave two of the boys dispensary care for minor ailments. Soon after the complaint the Dental Dispensary also did dental work for the older children. Aside from these health services the confidential exchange shows no record of service to the family for three years. Then A was hit by an automobile and his hospital bill for the care of an injured arm was paid by the Department of Charities.

When A got out of the hospital (he was then ten) he played truant persistently, telling the school authorities that he had to be absent on account of his arm. The attendance officer followed him up until the father realized that he was to be held responsible for the boy's attendance. The father had to appeal to the S. P. C. C. to bring the boy to terms: that society took the boy to the Shelter and then to the Children's Court. The court ordered his commitment to the Children's Aid Society, but allowed a postponement of execution and sent A home on probation. At this time the court had a mental and medical examination of A, who was reported normal in health and mental capacity (I.Q. 99).

Here is the way A spent the day before he was taken by the S. P. C. C.—apparently a typical truant day. He got up at 7:30, hurried through breakfast, and was on the street by 8. He came home at 10 at night—having spent a straight 14-hour day on the street. No particular boy was with him all the time, though he was a member of the F Street gang. He wandered the streets and shot craps with any boy whom he could find.

The following agencies have touched the life of A or his brothers:

1. *Parents*
2. *Church*
3. *School and attendance officers*
4. *Catholic Charities Aid Association*
5. *City Department of Charities*
6. *General Hospital, out-patient department*
7. *Homeopathic Hospital, free dispensary*
8. *Rochester Dental Dispensary*
9. *Social Settlement Dispensary*
10. *S. P. C. C.*
11. *Children's Court and Children's Aid Society*
12. *School in another city*
13. *Hospital in another city*

A remained on probation for a year, during which time the probation officer visited him at home and school and the boy reported at the court-house. His school attendance was better; the order committing him to the Children's Aid Society seemed at first to make him realize that continued truancy really meant that he would be sent away from home.

Since he was released from probation, more than a year ago, A seems to have lost his fear that he would be sent away and has lapsed into his old habit of truancy. Home and neighborhood conditions have not changed. The F Street gang (at the time of the survey) is still shooting craps on the street, to a great extent openly. The S. P. C. C. received calls for help, increasing in urgency, from school officials and the boy's parents. Less than a week after the call of the survey visitor at his home—on which occasion he remarked that he could be good if he made up his mind to it, but hated to be shut up in school—he was brought into the Children's Court on the complaint that he had torn a veil from a teacher at school. The court sent him away to a school in another town. A week later the mother said that A had run away from that school and was sick with pneumonia in a hospital in the same city. She remarked also that J, now 15 years old, was as bad as ever and stayed out till 10 or 11 every night with a crowd of boys at Exposition Park.

There are now eight boys in the family—all good-looking, bright, healthy and well-dressed. The parents have no more control over them than an older brother or sister might have, and appeal freely to outsiders when discipline is necessary. They have no privacy; the home is a hubbub of quarrels between the parents and among the children. The housekeeping is haphazard. The parents laugh at the children's pranks, and freely point out F as their good boy and J, A and C as the bad ones, before the children themselves and apparently with a frank admission of their inability to control the "bad ones." All have some pride, however, and the two older boys are in high school. Even A gets a good deal of satisfaction from the praise of the family for his success in winning at craps! This, and his music (the older children are musical and appear with their father in public recitals) seem to compensate to him for the criticism he gets from school authorities and other outsiders. The priest keeps in touch with the family but finds them a difficult problem.

And the other boys are growing up.

These queries are suggested by the story:

1. Could this home have been taught by church influence a deeper sense of responsibility for conduct of the boys?

2. Could the school through a school visitor have helped parents to have more understanding of boy nature and skill in discipline?

3. Could the attendance officer and S. P. C. C. have held parents to stricter account for school attendance and control of children?

4. Could the Children's Court, with present jurisdiction or with jurisdiction that law could give over neglectful parents, have helped this situation by Court order of probation for parents followed by educative supervision over them?

5. Could school or city—in combination with private agencies—see to it that recreation facilities under supervision are adequate in this district for children under High School age? (There was a club and gym for older boys.)

6. Could the successful discipline and education of one well known family like this in a neighborhood have a stimulating and educational effect on other families with tendencies to parental neglect?

7. Would a study of this neighborhood by a team effort of school, recreation, S. P. C. C., Children's Court, and other authorities, followed by such team work as would educate and enlist the real cooperation of parents and capture such a crowd of boys as the F Street gang for regular school attendance, constructive and happy use of their spare time, and for the habit of good citizenship, show the way to deal with the younger brothers of A, and all the other boys who are fast coming along in the homes of this neighborhood?

8. Could the domestic science teacher from the school help to teach the mother how to keep house?

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asked or a suggestion made in this report that has not been asked or made somewhere at some time, it still is a distinctive report. Its distinction consists first in the firm grounding of the suggestions in Rochester's own experience, and second in the mobilization of *all* the suggestions growing out of a body of experience into one whole. As the report points out, some of the special problems of the delinquent boys and girls of Rochester "are administrational problems within the scope of a single agency. Others will need the co-operation of several agencies. Some need new agencies and some even state legislation."

Whether a reader of this report will be profoundly depressed by the failures set forth in it or will see in it the beginning of a new day, when social work will be based upon critical examination, objective evaluation and genuine frankness, depends upon his temperament, his interests, and his knowledge of social work. To the reviewer it is one of those eye-to-eye encounters with experience that yields much that is good for us to know.

City Doorkeepers

TO THE TRAVELERS AID has fallen the genial task of standing at the head of the receiving line to welcome new citizens into the life of the community; but even a job which appears to be as simple as that has its seamy side, if one cares to examine it closely. To the conscientious and seeing Travelers Aid agent one of the hard questions is what to do with and for those who should not, so far as human wisdom can discern, be coming to the party. Is it her concern to protect in any way the community which she represents?

How many citizens of any city know the number of persons coming through the gates into the city every hour of the day and night to become a part of its complex community life; of this number how many are mentally defective, diseased and dependent upon public charity, or how many have been "passed on" by others who believe that by this action they are protecting their own communities from permanent support of public charges?

Many poor families who have been able to "get along well" in the small community decide to come to the big city hoping to find the end of the rainbow and the fabulous pot of gold. Instead they find the path that leads to a charity organization; and if sufficient time has lapsed between their arrival and the finding of the charity organization, the community supports them even unto the third and fourth generation. If one knows this and is stationed at the entrance to the city, should he be on the "look out" for such newcomers, or is a waiting policy the part of wisdom? Inquiries for a cheap room and employment can be answered automatically, but should they be so treated? In ordinary times some physical or mental disability often lies back of unemployment. If handicapped by a physical or mental disability, is a stranger entitled to more than the one minute of time required to direct him to an available employment office?

A Travelers Aid agent, alert to unusual situations and trained to conduct short interviews, can easily detect some of the less obvious needs of the client in the course of a friendly chat. There was Alice, for instance, who came to the Travelers Aid asking to be directed to a cheap room. She also asked that the Travelers Aid help her get a "job"; she said she did house-work, scrubbing and dish-washing; she was especially fond of scrubbing. She was not certain that her name was "Alice," was not certain her age was thirty, but she did remember Adam and Eve and the Garden of Eden, but nobody would believe it. She said she just could not keep a job when she got one, that she had worked in fourteen homes and two public eating houses in the past eighteen months. Following a suggestion from the Travelers Aid that she see a physician before trying a new job, she was taken to the Health Center for examination. The clinical analysis showed that the young woman was mentally defective and syphilitic. Playing the hostess to Alice was by no means a simple job.

Although these contacts are short and the Travelers Aid is not a family welfare society, it does seem to be distinctly a Travelers Aid job to get hold of indigents and to bring them into relation with the resources which the city affords for solving the family problems and protecting the community against imposition. Families which cannot maintain themselves without charity may have enough money, when they reach the city (usually secured from a sale of household goods before moving) to finance themselves for a few months, or with members of the family obtaining a few days' work at a time they may manage to get along for a year—the time required in many places to establish legal residence—before they appeal to a charity organization or the overseer of the poor. By that time life in the new home has added in many instances to the stock of problems which they brought with them.

If a contact with such families is made in the railroad station by the Travelers Aid, which then refers them to a family welfare society for assistance in getting settled in their new home, the whole course of their life may in a few days or weeks be directed away from failure and indigence, and toward careers of satisfaction to themselves as well as useful participation in the life of the city.

In spite of the efforts which have been made to stop the wretched practice of "passing on," it still exists. Travelers Aid agents are in strategic positions to see its extent and sometimes to break the evil chain. Young, thin, pale and hungry, Joseph came to the Travelers Aid and asked "Do you help travelers?" He said he had no money and wanted some place to stay. He was unable to recall anything of his home, or say whether he had ever had one. After a good dinner he was taken to the Health Center and given a thorough physical and mental examination. The physicians urged institutional care because they found the patient mentally defective and unable to provide for and protect himself. It was their opinion he would always be a public charge. On this advice he was committed to a state hospital for the insane. Every effort was made to locate his relatives but without success. Who this man is or where he hails from no one knows. How often Joseph had been "passed on," before he reached our city, no one knows. What suffering, through hunger, gruffness and neglect, this mentally sick boy has endured no one can find out. He is now in a hospital having the care that his handicapped mind and body need, but it was accomplished only because someone at the city's threshold took the trouble to see that the job was done. By starting a prompt backfire when an instance of passing on is detected, by a continuous process of education which shows the suffering inflicted on clients and the unfair burdens unloaded on communities which attend this practice of community shirking, it is conceivable that it can in time be stamped out.

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Thus, aside from the giving of information to the general public, travelers aid comes to be not a new kind of job with a new class of clients, but a casework job approached from a new and sometimes more advantageous angle. It presents the same problems of cooperation and of harmonizing individual and community interests that all case work presents. It too presents opportunities to strengthen the weaker parts of our social mechanism.

KATHRYN W. LAUSER

Changing Casework -- in Terms of St. Louis

OCCASIONALLY one finds a specimen the development of which sketches in bold outlines the history of its congeners. Such is the St. Louis Provident Association. Organized in 1860, this society antedated by a few years the first charity organization societies and belongs in its origins with the New York Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor and the Boston Provident Association. It arose in a city of 160,000 on which the Civil War had cast great burdens. The annual report for 1863 recorded that "one-half of the families aided were widows." Nonsectarian, interested in developing means of self-support for the needy, determined to discountenance and discourage begging and indiscriminate almsgiving, the society was then in the forefront of social progress and liberal thought. As the charity organization movement spread over the country, it found in St. Louis a going concern which readily accepted and assimilated the new principles of relief.

Many names of the city's more public-spirited citizens have been associated with the society from its beginning. Thus solidly constructed it has stood the shock of several great emergencies. In the summer of 1866 St. Louis was swept by an epidemic of cholera; in 1871 the Chicago fire started a flow of destitute people to St. Louis; in 1872 smallpox broke out; in 1873 came the great panic with its problems of distress which continued for several years. The 1893 panic was hardly over when in 1896 a tornado swept the city which was, up to that time, "the greatest calamity that ever befell an American city." It is not surprising to find that the obvious needs of large numbers of people for food, clothing, and shelter over-emphasized the inclination, still all too prevalent, to identify helping with giving away material things. For many years this society thought largely in terms of devising ways of giving them economically and of determining when the need was unquestionable. During the first fifteen years of the society's existence, nearly $300,000 were spent for supplies—"flour, cornmeal, bread, potatoes, meat, coal, wood, shoes, soup, groceries and clothing." In 1875 the society baked in its own ovens 276,593 pounds of bread!

Even in the earliest days the society was not wholly engrossed, however, in material relief. As early as 1864 there were the rudimentary beginnings of an employment service. Each visitor of the society was supplied with "employment books," one for recording employment opportunities of which the visitor might learn, the other for noting the names of those seeking employment. In 1865 a Provident Penny Savings Bank was opened; it continued up to very recent years.

The winter of 1892-1893 was critical and important in the society's history. It seems then to have taken the general direction in which it traveled up to a couple of years ago. The budget was nearly doubled, a general manager was appointed and the society "opened many avenues of help of a nature tending toward self-support by the poor." A wood-yard was opened in the south central section of the city. Meals, clothing and lodging "with the privilege of baths" were given in payment for work by single men and supplies of food and fuel to those who were heads of families. The year following the society opened sewing rooms and a laundry for the training and support of indigent women. A women's lodge and a day nursery followed. A cheap school lunch for school children and a penny lunch for men were inaugurated. A shoemaking department was opened. Legal assistance in financial difficulties, rent when eviction was impending and transportation to other parts of the country became important forms of assistance.

Like other charity organization societies in the early years of this century, the Provident Association formed the matrix out of which grew a pure milk commission, a tuberculosis commission, a tenement house commission and a school of philanthropy. The Missouri School of Social Economy is still housed in the Provident Association's building. The Visiting Nurse Association and the Urban League are also the children of the Provident.

The years from 1910 to 1920 were molded somewhat by the fact that the association had acquired a rather considerable outlay of property of which the central building was the conspicuous feature. At the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the society, held in November 1910, the building was a matter of great pride and seemed the crowning glory of fifty years of solid endeavor. The chairman reported that, "We have our own clothing rooms, grocery store and coal-yards." There was room in the new three-story central building for the women's lodge, the day nursery, the serving room, the laundry, the saving's bank, grocery and clothing room. There was office space sufficient to house all of the society's staff of social workers except the superintendent of the men's lodge. The work of caring for the families was divided geographically but all of the "districts" had their offices at headquarters.

Just when everything seemed to be so well set up, came the disturbing suspicion that perhaps the operation of the industries, the lodges, the grocery and the clothes room was holding the center of the stage somewhat to the exclusion of other approaches to the accomplishment of the society's purpose—to aid the poor of St. Louis "in such ways as shall be deemed most judicious." As early as 1910 Francis H. McLean, then of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, used the occasion of the golden jubilee to drop a fly in the ointment by remarking that fifty years hence "our work with individual families . . . . will make our work of today appear like nothing else than mere and sheer botch work. . . . We have not begun to treat families adequately. . . . We are just beginning to study human beings rather than tons of coal and groceries." Mr. McLean was confident that "the end of the fifty years will show a splendid system of district offices in St. Louis" where the study of families and of neighborhoods would be carried on at close range.

It required some years for these and similar seeds to germinate but by 1916 Mr. McLean was back in St. Louis to help the Central Council of Social Agencies make a study of all phases of social work carried on in the city, which included a general survey of family case work. Finally in

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1920 Mr. McLean went over the Provident Association's affairs in considerable detail and made a long series of recommendations. With this, the end of the older order came into full view. Apparently steady progress had been made in the case work of the society. "Both on the side of social inquiry (investigation) and of constructive planning and the carrying out of such plans do the records indicate high grade work on the whole." In the case planning, Mr. McLean found that mental and physical health factors, economic factors, family misunderstandings, moral conditions and the locating of responsibility on heads of families and competent relatives seemed to have been well done. The case work was weak on developing recreational and avocational interests for the families and children and on reuniting broken religious ties. In common with case workers in all parts of the country, the Provident workers were giving scant attention to plans for the better home care of the feeble minded, for many of whom the hope for custodial care was nil. Record writing was diffuse and failed in many instances to give the clear pictures necessary for effective direction of effort. As a method of evaluating the society's case work, it was recommended that at the end of each year a small percentage of the closed cases handled early in the year be minutely analyzed by the district superintendents to see how far success had attended the worker's efforts to solve both the specific problems of health, recreation or employment and the far more difficult problems which grow out of the interaction of these specific factors of welfare. Here the Provident Association was brought face to face with the issues of the highest development that case work has thus far attained. That the people to be assisted were personalities, unique products of the medley of forces that had played through and upon them, that they were more than hungry stomachs or "defenceless heads" or shivering bodies and that each of these personalities had a set of intimate relationships to family and to society that it might be well to study—these ideas began to filter in.

As then staffed, the association seems not to have been prepared to meet those issues, although it was willing to try, as evidenced by the appointment of Irene Liggett of Philadelphia as supervisor of case-work. To her goes the credit of beginning the establishment, during the years of 1921 to 1923, of case-work standards of the highest order.

And now the old objects of pride are no more. The central building is for sale. The lodges, the wood-yard, the laundry, the shoe shop and the grocery have passed into history. The passing of the grocery department leaves behind the memory of several diverting episodes. Department system and standardization had here reigned supreme. Up to a year ago, groceries were issued on rations, numbered one, two or three. In January 1921, ration number one cost thirty-six cents, ration number two cost sixty-nine cents and ration number three two dollars and sixty-nine cents. They were calculated to fit families of different sizes and were both issued to applicants at the central building and delivered by the society's truck. It happened occasionally that some kinds of supplies could be purchased at a great advantage or some firm would donate a stock of some commodity. These windfalls would be immediately apparent in the rations and for a time beans would figure heavily—or it might be hominy. A story is told of one family that had not yet learned to like dishes made from cornmeal, but ration after ration brought it into their home until they had accumulated two tubfuls in their cellar! One day an old lady presented herself at the grocery window and obligingly returned a dozen cans of baking powder, in the hope that she might exchange them for something more useful.

The older order is gone, however, and the new is in full swing under the leadership of Emil Steger, formerly with the United Charities of St. Paul, Minnesota. He comes to the society just when much that Mr. Hubbard, Mr. McLean and Miss Liggett have done is beginning to materialize. Case-work standards rapidly rising, a demonstration center managed cooperatively with the Visiting Nurse Association where students from educational institutions receive training, an information department where neighborhood conditions and social facts discovered by the association's visitors become matters of record and are brought together, the beginning of district organization with offices in the districts, these are well under way.

Among the society's nine geographical districts is one in which the population is almost solidly Negro. In recognition of this fact, the society has placed the district office in charge of a Negro superintendent and provided for it a staff of Negro visitors. Thus is there created within the society some opportunity for promotion for and a real division of responsibility with the Negro workers. The small sprinkling of white families in this area is assigned to the neighboring white districts. Three of the white districts have colored visitors for their colored families.

The society's new department of research and extension will take care of its case records, compile its statistics, make special research studies and develop its publicity.

And finally there is appreciation of the duties which lie outside St. Louis itself. The association is the forwarding center for Missouri of requests for information and service from other parts of the country. As is the case with other states, Missouri has many towns, villages and country neighborhoods as yet without interest or sense of social responsibility. Many of these places breed disease, immorality and defect which presently find their way to the city. Moreover many are not averse to encouraging their burdens to shift themselves to St. Louis. As the forwarding center, the association hopes to introduce these communities to a developing code of social ethics in shouldering their own burdens and better still to show them how they can use the resources of their state and their own community to prevent the unnecessary and tragic suffering of their own people who remain at home. N. R. D.

THE TWENTY-NINE remedial loan societies of the United States made 659,109 loans which aggregated $38,778,700 during the fiscal year 1922-23. The expenses of these societies totaled $1,181,229 and the losses, that is, the unpaid loans, $104,230. The paid-in capital aggregates $15,879,203 and the surplus $5,984,506. The dividends ranged from 5 to 8 per cent and are usually up to the maximum set either voluntarily by the society or by the state. The net earnings including dividends totaled $1,717,567. There are many variations in the practices of the societies. Small discounts when loans are made are charged by some of the organizations. These vary among the societies from $ .50 on a loan of over $10 to $6.25 on $300. For the average loan of $83 the usual fee is from $1.50 to $4.75. The rate of interest charged on unpaid balances ranges from ½ per cent per month when liberty bonds are given as collateral to 3½ per cent per month on loans made on pledges. Remedial loan societies are now operating in eighteen states and twenty-six cities.

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EDUCATION

Some Unwritten History of Farms

THE history of the United States is so brief that even the vestigial memories of men grown bookish retain much of it. We may still talk with veterans of the Civil War; they may have talked with men who served in the Revolution. Three generations of but thirty years each carry our farm families back to times when all their hay was mowed by scythes and all their grain was reaped by cradles and sickles, bound by hand and thrashed by flails. Historians do not write of such matters, but they are talked of in farm homes; many things are written that mean less to the fortunes of Americans.

A grandfather may have been born in 1832, a father may have been born in 1862, and a son, now only thirty, may have been born in 1892. If the three generations have farmed in the United States, they have differed in the fundamentals of their education, in their aspirations, and in their ways of life. Men centuries apart have not differed so much in times past; men of diverse nations and even races need not differ so much today.

The grandfather born in 1832 was lawfully a man in 1853; his formative years included the Mexican War. He was a pioneer and necessarily skilled in many trades. His father's farm provided wool and flax or cotton for the family raiment; the household industries included spinning, weaving, dressmaking and tailoring. Home-tanned skins of farm animals or wild animals were shaped at home into harness, shoes, caps and often into full costumes. The grandfather was not unschooled; he could read, write and cipher; his reading was not limited to his Bible, but he read that and did not doubt its meaning. Schooling was a small part of his education. He had pride in his skill in farm and pioneer crafts. He was ambidextrous with the axe and could stand in his place and fell a tree, leaving a low, smooth stump that would not needlessly bother his plowing. He could hew to a line, and could build a log house with riven shingles, puncheon floor and a fire-place that would draw. His clearing and the wilderness about it would meet all needs of his family except salt, for which occasionally he made a long journey carrying furs or other articles that would be accepted in trade.

The grandfather's heroes included Daniel Boone and Davy Crockett. Like them, he sought the frontier. He had his place in the winning of the West; he would not have held his self-respect if he had not done his part to make America a white man's country. His friends who left farming temporarily or permanently were lured as he was to adventure. Some panned gold in California; some freighted with ox teams across the Plains; some took to lumbering, rafting their logs down the great rivers. The story of their generation is told in farm homes; it is a nobler theme than the siege of Troy, worthy of a greater Homer, unless we, who have no Homer, detract from its significance by unworthiness of comparison with the civilization that followed the siege.

THE grandfather's son is assumed to have been born in 1862 and so to have reached manhood in 1883. His time was less migratory; he inherited land that his father had won from the wilderness, and his life work was given to improving the farm. He built the farm buildings, or rather he paid for them; they are of purchased materials and mechanics' work. His interests were in improved live-stock and in horse-drawn implements that replaced hand tools. The scythe was to him no occasion for vanity; he could use it in a way along roads and in odd corners; but his way was cut by a mowing-machine and windrowed by a horse rake. He never used a sickle or a cradle in his grain; such tools were not on his farm. He learned to bind his station following a reaper; but soon the self-binder made even that craft as obsolete as the scythe. He never learned to swing a flail; the thrashing-machine always came to trash his grain. He grew good crops, but he marketed them as live-stock and his pride was especially in his cattle, hogs and horses.

Some of his friends who did not farm were lured to pioneering on new frontiers, but many were attracted by cities or by towns that grew to cities. The professions

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were open to them. A farm boy might "read law" under the tutelage of a local attorney and become a lawyer as Lincoln had; he might "read medicine" for a year under the local physician as a part of a medical course. He might become a minister. He might enter business, and in that as in the professions no heights were inaccessible to ability and application. But on the whole no career seemed better than farming. It looked to men of this father's time as it looked to Ralph Waldo Emerson who said: "All historic nobility rests on possession and use of land." The father was developing an estate and founding a landed family such as in England would have been humiliated by descent to commerce or to some professions. It seems odd now that there was such a vision, but there was; it is interpreted in Vachel Lindsay's poem, The Proud Farmer.

THE son of this proud farmer has farmed his father's acres in a later stage of the industrial revolution. New and effective toll-gates between him and his market have kept him from adding to his barns and from painting the buildings left him by his father. Fine live-stock loses money faster than he can afford; it has become a toy of millionaires. Everywhere in the world nobility and gentry based on possession and use of land fast become extinct; for good or ill, a peasantry inherits the earth. Parcelling of large estates even by confiscation meets with no effective or spirited resistance, for taxes and upkeep everywhere leave farm rents a poor resource or a deficit. Where parcelling is not compelled, it is earnestly sought by owners of farm land. In America as in England and elsewhere, farm land is a buyer's market; he can buy a farm for less than the improvements have cost, and on terms that would not be thought of in a sale of other property. Farm values are problematical. When 5 per cent of owners found opportunity to unload, America was scandalized by the "boom." Those who bought are pitied as are those who neglected to sell or could not find buyers.

The pioneer hoped that his descendants would profit by his labors. American farming is not done by aspirants to peasant status. Even immigrants of peasant stock have come to America hoping to improve their fortunes. They came because they were unwilling to remain peasants; to escape peasant status, their children now migrate to cities. In 1922, migration from American farms exceeded migration to them by 1,120,000.

Young men and women of farm families are the first to leave. The farmer now thirty years old is reluctant to abandon land that his grandfather and his father gave the work of their lives to change from wilderness to a white man's homestead. His grandfather could work in many trades; he knows none. His father's skill in farming is his, but it has become no way to distinction and pride, or even to comfort. His youth is gone, the professions have become standardized, and he cannot enter one of them. He stays on his land if he can. He does not hire help; he can not pay city wages because he and his family cannot make as much as a city laborer is paid. The farm hands of New York number 60 per cent less in 1923 than in 1916; there is now one farm hand to six farms. The farmer does not, because he cannot, buy machinery to meet the depreciation of what he has. He drifts toward the man with the hoe, and his interest turns to labor-saving grass and sheep.

The farmer's sons can no longer enter professions as Lincoln became a lawyer. Exceptional provisions are theoretic rather than real. To practice medicine requires at least four years in a medical college, and to enter the medical college requires at least four years of preliminary schooling away from home. The country doctor no longer is recognized as competent to teach; in fact he has gone from the country and no one seeks his once honored place. The changes may be beneficial. The more standardized physician may be better than the less standardized; but the country now has neither, and the profession is inaccessible to farm boys. The more standardized higher education may be better than the less standardized; but if the farm boy now seeks higher education, he must seek it away from the farm to which he does not return.

Ways into business have changed like ways into professions. Big business has absorbed what it could; the little businesses that are left are businesses that stay little. The farm boy leaves the farm to escape peasantry; he leaves without a trade, a profession or a business. Very rarely he works his way through high school and college to a white collar job; but commonly he accepts the lot of the unskilled. When unemployment comes, he goes where employment is said to be; the I. W. W. gains a recruit. In one way only is the modern farm boy likely to have a better chance. He has grown up among machines as his father among horses and his grandfather among hand tools. The farm boy of our time knows the steam traction engine that runs the thrasher and the silo-filler; he knows the gasoline or kerosene tractor and all the machinery for which it gives power. He knows the cars and trucks that have proved more economical than horses on the long country roads. The gifted and ambitious farm boy in the city is likely now to be found among machines. It is an age of machines, and some think that in the end they will serve those who make and use them. That is a chance farm boys have.

FARMERS, once known as conservative, are known now as radical. It is mystifying, since the farmer is a capitalist and an employer of labor. The accepted explanation is hysteria, brought on by too much leisure for thinking. The explanation may be right, but explanations are not producing cotton. Whether they will produce wheat is to be tried next. Reducing the population is advocated. Relations between population and food-supply seem clear; the two decrease or increase together, and either process may go far. If many farmers come to town or revert to hand tools, population will decrease; but the farmer who comes to town may not be cured of his radicalism. The farmer who stays may be; the remaining cotton-field Negro and the man with the hoe are not radical. The past has included eras when mankind consisted wholly of conservatives like these. In Europe the opinion prevails that another such era has begun. Primitive agriculture is advancing from eastern Europe to the west; it has won the most of the continent. From the stage of primitive agriculture, "after some centuries of repose," says Bertrand Russell, "it will be possible to begin reconstruction, as in Charlemagne's time." As in Charlemagne's time and always, the new nobility of the reconstruction may rest on possession and use of land.

Advisors of American farmers are counselling them to diversify their products, which inevitably means the substituting of hand-work for machine-work with such diminished production as that change would bring to any other industry. Farmers are urged to supply more of their home and farm needs from the farm; the suggestion is practical

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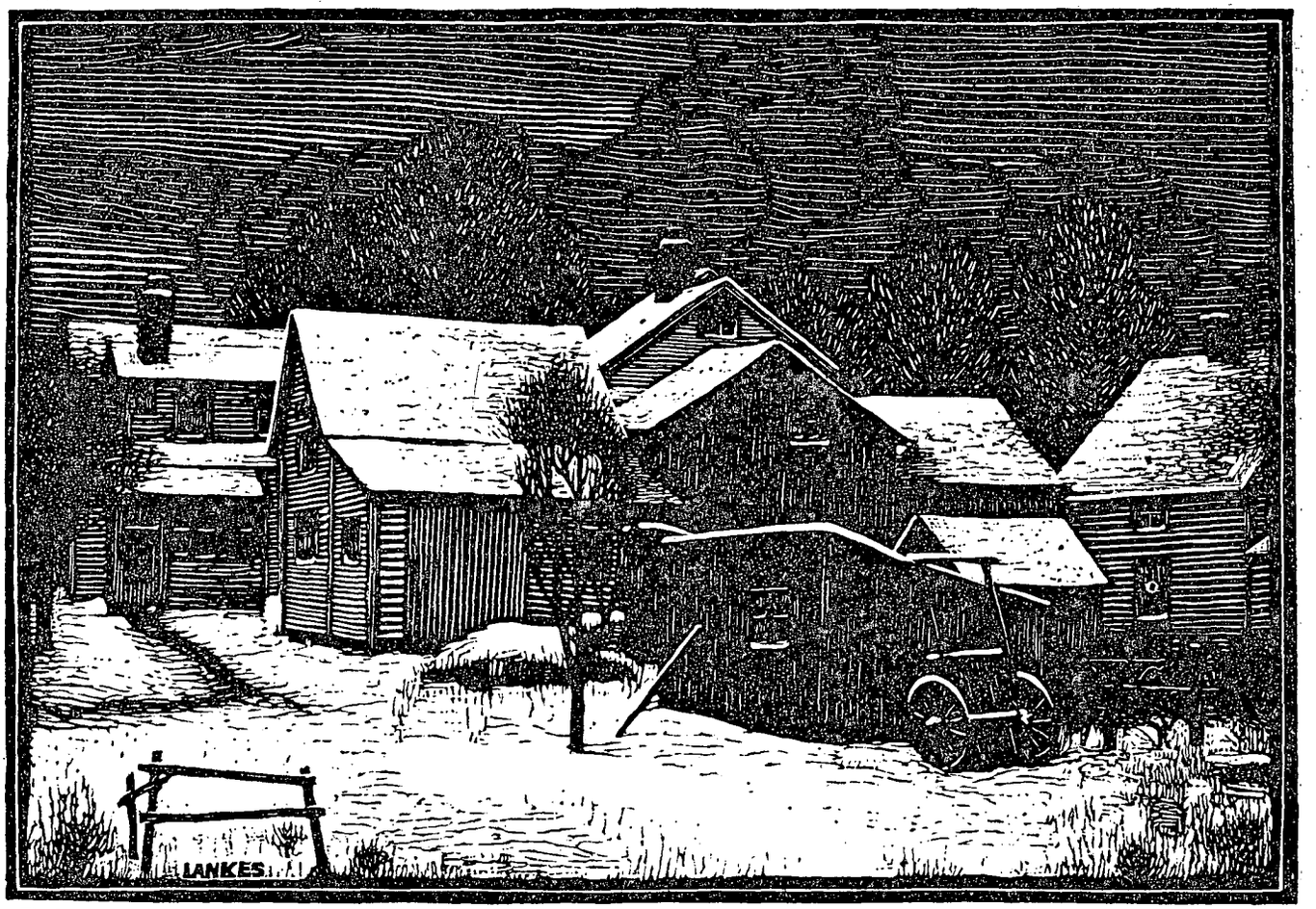

Woodcut by J. J. Lankes

The homestead which a grandfather won from the wilderness, which a father spent his life in building up and stabilizing against the future of himself and his family, stands now in want of the ordinary repair and improvement which the son who has inherited cannot give it.

and finds response. The farm that buys little has little to sell, for labor is the limiting factor and time given to incidentals is taken from staple products for which the farm is better adapted and equipped. Nevertheless, this is the way European farmers are taking, the ancient way to permanence and stability. It has proved remedial of excessive leisure, production and population. But wooden shoes are not acceptable to American farm boys; and their inspiration is now not Boone or Lincoln but Henry Ford.

The farmer, it is said, must solve his own problems. They are complex and he is isolated; like the cotton-field Negro, he solves them by moving; his preliminary efforts in politics are negligible. Bread from American wheat costs about twice as much in America as in England. When the supply of wheat becomes inadequate, as the supply of cotton, the farmer's problems will concern others who will consider the possibility of restoring farming without increasing the cost of bread. The Negro illustrates that farming is not easily restored; civilizations have found that the process takes longer than they can wait. Economists and sociologists in agricultural colleges might give timely help if trustees were eliminated; but trustees are there to see that they do not give it. Farm papers might help, but it would not be good business. Manifestly country life might have the economic basis that it lacks, and manifestly farm neighborhoods need not be rural slums. Great things in small communities are possible; Plato thought Athens too big, and it was.

CLARKE F. ANSLEY

World Civics in the Schools

IN a report of the World Education Conference, at San Francisco (see The Survey, August 15, 1923, p. 541), its author puts some pertinent questions: "Does education educate? What education is it that we are talking about—education by schools and schoolmasters? Or shall we look for saving grace in education outside and beyond the schools? If the latter is the problem of the schoolmaster, then before he buckles on his armor to wage battle upon social disorders, let him clean house and make school education effective."

There has been a great "housecleaning" in civic education in the last few years. Among other things, it is now pretty widely accepted that training for citizenship cannot be achieved through formal textbook instruction; that instruction must be supplemented by children's activities; and that the citizen in training must be thoroughly conscious, through experience as well as instruction, of the common purposes, the interdependence, the necessity and available means of organized cooperation in community life. In the field of civic or social education, at least, we must look for saving grace outside and beyond school books if not beyond the schools.

It was during his efforts as a schoolmaster to assist at the house-cleaning in his own department of civic education that the writer made acquaintance with the Junior Red Cross.

Much progress had been made in the development of the new "community civics" before the Junior Red Cross was

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born. But the Junior Red Cross added materially to the extent and variety of activities by which school children could gain experience in organized, purposeful cooperation for social ends. In addition to this, it offered a corrective to an unfortunate tendency in the new "community civics," viz., that toward too narrow application to local community relations. This corrective was obtained during the Great War in a variety of ways, and the educational values of it were much talked of at the time. Since the war, the Junior Red Cross alone has perpetuated the achievement on a scale at all comparable to the war-time experience. Five million children, at the present time, in 125,000 schoolrooms distributed in every state and territory of the United States, under the leadership of 125,000 teachers, in rural and city schools, including native Americans and foreign-born, all *working consciously together* for national ideals and purposes!

Moreover, the program of this organization is such that its membership is constantly having instilled, by instruction and by experience, the lesson that cooperation in service for the common good is the foundation of normal life in all its departments. Than this, there is no more vital or fundamental civic lesson.

Adolescent Citizens

The problems of the world will not be solved by lessons in civics. But no one will deny that the hope of the future rests largely with the younger generation; or that the success with which this younger generation grapples with the problems of world relations will depend in large measure upon the civic education it receives. A great responsibility rests upon schools and schoolmasters to do everything possible for the promotion of what has been called "world civics." But efforts at "world civics" will be seriously handicapped unless *some* means are available to provide both motive and opportunity for cooperative international contacts on the part of growing citizens.

The Junior Red Cross affords such means. It is in the schools with a mechanism and a program available for effective operation in so far as the schools desire to use them. The idea of using this mechanism for international school correspondence was forced upon the organization because European children spontaneously began to use it to express appreciation of the good will evidenced by American children.

From the outposts of the American Junior Red Cross in the devastated countries of Europe there came in increasing number friendly messages, often accompanied by photographs and other illustrative articles. The American Junior Red Cross would have defaulted had it not made this material available to the schools for which it was intended. That it filled a widely felt need in the curriculum is evident from its steady growth. For at the end of the past school year more than 2,500 *schools* were engaged in correspondence between the United States and foreign countries. This takes no account of similar correspondence between schools of other nations in which the United States had no part, but all through channels of the appropriate Junior Red Cross Societies. Since this correspondence is between schools or classes, the number of individual children involved certainly exceeded 100,000 and perhaps amounted to double that number.

The correspondence is not limited to letters and post-cards but includes materials of wide variety. The "portfolio" is an increasingly common form of correspondence. An entire class joins in preparing a portfolio, in which are bound together letters, descriptive articles, photographs, illustrations and articles clipped from magazines, samples of school work, and many other things illustrative of the life of school and community. And one of the distinctive features of this plan of correspondence is the fact that it *is* between classes and not between individuals. It is the group effort which affords a large part of its educational value. The entire class cooperates in purposeful effort in which all take peculiar pride. To explain American environment, customs and institutions requires knowledge on the part of the children, judgment in selecting facts and skill in presentation. The correspondence thus becomes an ally of the teacher for it provides objective and stimulus for much of the regular school work. On the other hand, the material received in exchange from abroad tends to increase the appreciation of American children for the abilities of foreign children, adds to parts of the world hitherto vaguely known a new element of realism and human interest, and richly supplements the textual materials of many subjects in the curriculum.

"The Only Window"

But most important of all is the fact that international school correspondence as conducted by the Junior Red Cross grew out of and is interwoven with a program of service and friendly cooperation. American and European educators alike have seized upon it for this reason. In Central Europe, where there is such bitterness among neighbors and where so many influences exist to perpetuate hatred in children, the Junior Red Cross has been called "the only window through which light is coming." Superintendent Wilson of Berkley emphasized the importance of this when he said at the World Conference, "The human interest and concern clustering about trying to render service to someone needing it would soon disappear without the good offices of the Junior Red Cross and the fundamental services objectives of that great organization. These needs have given heart, soul, and deep purpose to all pupil activities growing out of aiding the Junior Red Cross to do its work."

From the constant stream of international school correspondence there floated to the surface, the other day, a letter addressed to a school in Minnesota from the Albanian Vocational School in Tirana, Albania. The first paragraph reads:

> Dear American Friends:
>
> Today Noloc Logoceci received five letters from your school, and he gave me yours to answer. He is my schoolmate and good friend. He is a Catholic, and I am a Mohammedan, but we never quarrel about religion. I think that religion is in our heart, and is shown by our work, the name doesn't matter; don't you think so?

Albania and America

The Albanian Vocational School, established with the assistance of the American Junior Red Cross, has been said to stand in the minds of Albanians "second only to their achievement of independence." Apart from the friendly relations that it is cementing between Albania and America, it is an influence for uniting all Albanians, regardless of class or creed, in concerted effort for national progress. "We have come to understand," writes one of these boys, "that cooperation advances the people. No one doubts that from now on we shall not have troubles and that everybody

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will begin to *work* in good earnest as we boys are now doing to repay in the only way we can our debt of gratitude to the American Red Cross Juniors."

It is this sort of thing that "gives heart, soul, and deep purpose" to the international school correspondence herein described.

In the report of the World Conference from which quotation was made in the first paragraph of this article, there is a section under the caption, "The Zealots Scramble Aboard," in which it is said that "the first of these hasty boardings met disaster. It was an attempt to secure international endorsement by the conference of the Junior Red Cross method of school correspondence. . . . The proposal for an ignorant endorsement was vigorously thrown overboard." This report of the demise of the resolution endorsing the plan of school correspondence presented at the conference is "greatly exaggerated." Nor was any attempt made to "prescribe that every nation in the world should forthwith adopt this particular method exclusively." Though the resolution first submitted carried the name of the Junior Red Cross, its representatives gladly acquiesced in the suggestion of two or three individuals that explicit mention of one organization might seem to discriminate against others, and themselves offered a revision of the first resolution, which was adopted as follows:

WHEREAS, it is recognized that in a complete educational process textbooks must be supplemented by fresh material from other sources and instruction must be supplemented by habit-forming activities in which the children participate; and

WHEREAS, these ends are now being achieved in the schools of many countries through the organized exchange between classes of articles of various kinds including correspondence that interpret the life of different communities to each other; therefore

BE IT RESOLVED: That this conference endorse the development of such international school correspondence and the appointment of an educational representative in each country to cooperate with all agencies equipped to work with the schools in the promotion and execution of similar programs.

The American Red Cross is repeatedly on record as believing that the sole function of the Junior Red Cross is to be simply a tool at hand for the schools, to be used in cooperation with the educational equipment of the country only when and as the schools themselves desire. Thousands of school officials are also on record as believing that the educational values of its program, especially as regards its plan of international school correspondence, are of great value to teachers, pupils and the general public, including the future public of coming generations. Among these officials is State Superintendent Augustus O. Thomas, of Maine, chairman of the N. E. A. Committee which organized the World Conference, who alone was responsible for including "international school correspondence as conducted by the Junior Red Cross" in the agenda of the conference.

The Junior Red Cross as an organization was represented at the World Conference by invitation for the purpose of answering questions; and that it answered the questions satisfactorily is evidenced by the fact that the plan of international school correspondence which it has had the good fortune to be in a position to develop was endorsed—with full knowledge on the part of the large number present during the extended discussion of the subject.

ARTHUR W. DUNN

The Laurel Tree

APOLLO the great god of the rays of the sun was one day walking in the valley and as he was walking along its banks he saw Cupid the little god of love sitting on bank playing with his arrows and some of his arrows had points of gold and some points of lead but they were all very small and to Apollo only looked like pretty play-things and Apollo said of what use are those little arrows with mine have just killed this big Serpent which lived in the caves at the bottom of the mountain Cupid did not like to hear his arrows made fun of so he left Apollo and flew away with them to the top of the mountain of Greece now just at this time the beautiful little girl of the river-god came walking through the valley it was the spot she loved best on earth even the flowers which grew there seem to know her and lift up their heads as she passed by she would climb the mountain every morning to see the sun-gods golden chariot rise and ride across the sky and would watch it sink to rest in the evening now just at this time little Cupid on the mountain above saw her coming and in a play-ful mood shot a golden arrow straight at her and in some way or other it made her afraid and she felt she must run away it was Cupids turn now so taking aim he shot golden arrow at Apollo and wounded him now just at this time Apollo saw the little girl running as fast as she could through the valley Apollo was charmed with her beauty and called to her to stop as she would not Apollo ran quickly after her she ran on and on till she felt too weary to go any farther she lay down and called to her father the river-god to help her the flowing stream at once passed over her and when Apollo came up to the place where he last saw her there was only a beautiful laurel tree with glossy green leaves Apollo always loved that tree it was all that left to him of Daphne for that was her name He wore its leaves as a crown and as they were ever green so was his love for the lost Daphne ever fresh and bright.

THE author of this little story was six years and eight months old when she wrote it. She had heard the story of Apollo and Daphne read aloud once. Her teacher, reporting the facts, says: "She remembered the story absolutely without the slightest help to assist in spelling a word."

The author is a pupil in one of the common schools of Gloucestershire, England. She has been taught according to the methods of the Parents' National Educational Union, developed by Charlotte Mason, some thirty years ago, and now being widely used in many of the schools of England, notably in Gloucestershire.

The Hon. Mrs. E. F. Franklin, honorary organizing secretary of the P. N. E. U., and H. W. Household, secretary of education for Gloucestershire, are now in America lecturing before educational audiences on this method. The fundamentals of this method are, in brief:

1. Children are born persons.
2. They are not born either good or bad, but with possibilities for good and evil.
3. The principles of authority on the one hand, and of obedience on the other, are natural, necessary and fundamental; but—
4. These principles are limited by the respect due to the personality of children, which must not be encroached upon, whether by direct use of fear or love, suggestion or influence, or by undue play upon any one desire.
5. Therefore, we are limited to three educational instru-

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ments—the atmosphere of environment, the discipline of habit, and the presentation of living ideas. The P. N. E. U. motto is: "Education is an atmosphere, a discipline and a life."

The child's mind is no mere *sac* to hold ideas; but is rather, if the figure may be allowed, a spiritual organism, with an appetite for all knowledge. Hence, the child must be given a full and generous curriculum, made up of knowledge that is vital. This knowledge "should be communicated in well-chosen language," because the child's attention "responds naturally to what is conveyed in literary form." But since reproduction is essential to assimilation, all knowledge should be "told back," either orally or in writing, "after a single reading or hearing." In this way, the story reproduced above was told back in writing after a single hearing.

There are other elements in the method which space will not permit us to give at this time. Any one interested in further study of the program of the P. N. E. U. may communicate with the association at 26 Victoria Street, (S. W. 1), London.

MANY recent events have emphasized the significance of the automobile as an instrument of education and as a stimulator of what we may call "education for real life." Boys must keep up with their classmates in the great school of life, even though they may have to steal the "credits." For example, one Philadelphia boy (according to the Evening Public Ledger of Oct. 27) has stolen three high-priced cars this year. He needed a car in order to make good with his girl. His arrest did not disconcert him in the least. Though but seventeen years old he took his medicine with a laugh. In his cell at the police station he wrote: "The latest song, 'No matter how deaf you are you will get your hearing in the morning' by Judge McDevitt. The speedometer said seventy-five miles an hour. The constable said is was a hundred. The natives said it was a crime. His friends said it with flowers." Few schools are able to show such emphatic results!

LUMBER SALESMEN and dry-kiln experts from all over the country have just completed a short course in the uses and properties of woods given by the Forest Products Laboratory of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the University of Wisconsin. About seventy scientists are engaged continuously in this laboratory in studying the uses and properties of woods, and in teaching short courses to interested groups from all over the world. They have been studying, in recent months, the problem of "marine borer," the chief enemy of harbor wharves. On the west coast these devastating borers have done such spectacular things as setting a whole wharf free to sail out to sea when a heavy boat tugged at its moorings. Another problem is that of making a satisfactory pulp to supply "linen" paper for currency. Since the country is failing to plant forests as fast as they are being used, the problem of conservation and use becomes extremely important.

A RECENT investigation of the condition of health of school children in Berlin showed that in one district in 1922 almost 10 per cent of the school entrants had to be kept back from school on account of poor health, against 2.1 per cent in 1913. 27.2 per cent of school entrants of the same district were found to have a "poor" constitution; in 1913 only 13.9 per cent; a "good" constitution was found in 1922 in 15.8 per cent cases, in 1913 in 45.1 per cent. In another district of Berlin 1.5 per cent of the school children showed pronounced tuberculosis in 1914; this rate increased gradually until it reached 3.2 per cent in 1922. The tuberculosis mortality rate of children under 14 years in Berlin was .41 per 1,000 living children of the same age in 1913, and 1.06 in 1922. Altogether there are about 15,000 tuberculosis children in Berlin among the half-million school children of that city. In one district 53.5 per cent of the school graduates were found in "good" condition in 1913 and 35.2 per cent in 1922; the percentage of those in "bad" condition was 4.9 per cent in 1913 and 17 per cent in 1922. In the same district 8.1 per cent of the school graduates were either tuberculous or suspected as being so in 1913 and 15 per cent in 1922.

AN INTERESTING experiment in the psychology of learning has recently been made at the Naval Air Station, Pensacola, Florida, in connection with teaching recruits facility in the use of the radio code. On May 1, sixty enlisted men started to master the code. After four weeks twelve were found to be below the requirements. J. N. Phinney, instructor in the course, then suggested that a special class be made up of all students who were in danger of failing and that they be required to bring their bedding and sleep on the tables in the radio classroom, wearing the regulation radio helmets all night; and that operators be kept on watch, repeating the same lesson assignment at a constant speed until morning. Twenty students took part. Students were requested to repeat aloud each character as it was received until they became sleepy and then to continue thinking them until they went to sleep. At seven o'clock the next morning the students were tested, and another test was made later the same day. Of the twelve who had been previously marked unsatisfactory, ten had made improvements ranging from one half a word to five words a minute. The two who failed had expressed the belief that the experiment was nonsense and had refused to take it seriously.

SHOULD STUDENTS be interested in their own education? This question is being answered in the affirmative by students of the New School of Social Research, New York City. The students' cooperative association has taken the responsibility for organizing and financing a course which was specially called for by the students themselves. By means of a special investigation, the association found out what line of work the students most desired for the year 1923-24, outside the lines already promised by the faculty. They arranged for this course, found an instructor for it, registered the students for it and guaranteed the expenses of the course. The faculty and administrative authorities have cooperated, but the initiative has been taken entirely by the students. The course selected is one on "Nineteenth Century Thought"; the instructor is Professor Morris Cohen of the College of the City of New York.

THE COMMISSIONER OF IMMIGRATION has recently ruled that the term "student" shall be defined to mean "an otherwise admissible alien who seeks temporary admission to the United States for the purpose of attending a recognized institution of higher education as a regular matriculated student." When satisfactory evidence covering the matter is presented, such students may be exempted from the provisions of the exclusion laws. "Temporary admission" as used in the new order means not more than one year; but the period may be extended if the alien maintains the status of a student. Arrangements for such temporary admission may be made by the prospective student before his arrival in the United States.

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INDUSTRY

The Sweatshop on the Spanish Main

IMAGINE yourself turning a corner in the city of Ponce, now four centuries old, and coming face to face with a modern concrete building, one tall story high, from which comes the familiar sound of the power-driven sewing machine, and reading over the door "A. Blaustein & Co., Blouse Manufacturers."

Nothing but the sound and the name is familiar. There are no overshadowing brick walls, no dark windows, no stuffy low-ceiled workrooms. Half-latticed doors and windows admit the bright sunlight from all four sides; trade winds that blow twelve months in the year fan the workers; under the high ceiling a cushion of air as deep as a full story in an ordinary city building deflects the heat of the sun. Fancy if you can palm trees loaded with cocoanuts, bananas lusciously ripe on the stem, spreading guavas bent with their delicate fruit and a wealth of other tropical growth close to the rear of the building, and you will have a picture of surroundings such as palaces—out of the tropics—cannot boast.

The pleasing environment fades from the mind, however, when a local business man at your elbow remarks with unction on the progress manufacturing is making in Porto Rico. You remember the saying that the constitution follows the flag, but listening to the monotonous hum of the machines you are unable to keep back the cynical thought that, where profits invite, the sweatshop follows too.

With the constitution there came to Porto Rico medical science, education, prison reform, law enforcement and social order. But when, after these, there appeared the old, familiar face of the sweatshop, scarred and wrinkled, it seemed young and hopeful to Porto Rico; and now it goes by the name of industrial progress. In the United States, the sweatshop is recognized as a menace to workers and consumers; in Porto Rico it is thought of as the bearer of a kind of industrial salvation, and is welcomed by the government, business organizations and the unemployed.

The Crushed Hat

This will be understood if we consider the curious history of the island. Through four centuries of Spanish occupation, agriculture furnished all the commodities in trade, and today it remains the backbone of the island's economic life. Porto Rico, seen from the air, might suggest an old hat, crushed, creased, indented by the hands, and set carelessly down on the ocean. The flattened brim is the seaboard country. The irregular and badly crushed crown is the mountain range reaching up and then down from brim to brim. The innumerable creases and indentations are canyons, arroyos and shut-in valleys wrought by the elements in past geological ages. Endless acres of sugar cane grow rank on the brim of the hat, which is gracefully trimmed around the edge with cocoanut palms. Along the crease from brim to crown, which, more exactly described, is the old military highway built by the Spaniards about the time Indian war-dances were in vogue on Manhattan, there are tobacco plantations in the valleys, on the hills, and climbing the precipitous mountain sides. On the crown of the hat extensive coffee plantations spread in every direction. Growing everywhere are citrous fruits, pineapples, bananas, mangoes, bread fruit, alligator pears, papia and the nut and date palms—fruits that serve well as nature's antidote for the Porto Rican's habitual overindulgence in rice and beans.

From more than 225,000 acres of sugar cane, 350,000 to 400,000 tons of raw sugar are produced annually. One hundred million cigars were manufactured in the island last year in addition to the tobacco shipped in bulk to be used for blending purposes by factories in the United States. In all, 20,000 acres of tobacco were cultivated. Tobacco growers and manufacturers are the most consistent employers of labor in Porto Rico. Thousands of peon families, including the children old enough to recognize the red coffee beans that shatter in stripping, care for 160,000 acres of coffee grown on the mountain-lands.

Too Many People

These three ancient and familiar enterprises, in spite of the great advances made in tropical agriculture, no longer suffice to meet the demands of the island's teeming population. Ponce de Leon, its first governor, complained bitterly that the King of Spain did not furnish slaves enough to re-people his possessions, from which pestilence and plague more than took the surplus population. But centuries of acclimatization have been followed by the American occupation; American scientists have dealt with fever and the hookworm, and the native now lives out his allotted time.

A population conservatively counted at 1,300,000 in an area of 3435 square miles works out at an average density of 378 persons to the square mile, with only half a dozen towns of more than 10,000 as points of special congestion. This is three times the average density of Delaware, without making allowance for Wilmington; more than six times that of the most crowded southern state; nearly nine times the density of Iowa. Eighty-five per cent of the natives live in unsanitary peon shacks constructed of everything from crude lumber to Campbell's soup cans pounded flat. These shacks are pasted against the steep hillsides, tucked into canyons, planted in swamps and clearings and even on mountain tops. Any traveler through the country will hardly doubt the figures as to congestion, if he takes the trouble to note the curious faces protruding in tiers from every doorway.

Hundreds and thousands are unemployed or find work irregularly, and are eager to work on any terms that will better their living conditions. To Porto Ricans of all classes, craving economic and social advancement, the need for new industries seems imperative, and their welcome to the needle trades is a hearty one. Porto Rican capital is ready to match American dollars, provided the Americans

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furnish the directing effort. The government backs the invitation strongly, and can point to an educational budget of $12,000,000, which emphasizes this year the addition of 300 new trade schools, as an earnest of its desire to supplement agriculture by new industries. New money in circulation seems to spell prosperity; every town is clamoring for its own row of sewing-machines.

The Happy Ground Hunting of Profits

Such an invitation has very concrete appeal for the manufacturer who is facing the competition of the clothing-trade centers. Labor costs in Porto Rico may be judged from the fact that housemaids and cooks can be hired at from $4 to $15 a month, day laborers at from $.60 to $1.00 a day. The working day is as long as one chooses to make it. There are 1200 miles of paved roads, motor transportation is excellent, railroads girdle the island, tonnage rates facilitate carriage to and from the United States. It is said that the manufacturer can ship his raw materials to the island, make them up, re-ship the finished product to New York—and cut his manufacturing costs by a full third. There is of course no tariff wall to climb: Porto Rico is on a par with New Jersey or Illinois in that respect. Cheap water power, cheap and abundant labor—and no unions to deal with—give the booster a pretty good case.

Two noteworthy responses have followed these generous encouragements—the sweatshop and contract needlework in the home. In many respects, the general situation resembles that found in the old South immediately following the Civil War, when the cotton mills were introduced. Somewhat the same poverty, the same cheap power and cheap labor, found in the South by the New England mill owners, prevail in Porto Rico, accentuated by the same pressure of necessity created by the desire for higher standards of living. But the sweatshop finds advantages in Porto Rico that the cotton mill owner did not find in the South. The water power is developed and ready for him to throw in the switch, and a still greater advantage is found in the skilled hands of the Porto Rican women ready to be used in the sewing trades. The superior quality of this labor goes directly back to the time when lacemaking, drawn-work, embroidery and kindred arts flourished in the households of Spanish families, and were transmitted by them to their subjects and slaves. If this handwork seems widely separated from the field of the power-driven sewing machine and blouse making, the facts contradict it: the building of sweatshops, and the premium placed on Porto Rican garments by retailers in our American stores. For it is represented that these garments are better made than those manufactured in this country. Moreover, the adaptability of the skilled hand-workers in the sewing trades has become a part of the propaganda for more sweatshops in Porto Rico.

The hand crafts of lacemaking, drawn-work and embroidery are not for the present being sacrificed to the machine. This work is being stimulated by a system of contracts made by New York concerns that market the product. These firms have representatives all over the island who contract with native women in the villages and the hills, on a piecework basis, for fancy work, underwear, and also for dresses supposed to come from Paris. From all reports, these contracts have proved very profitable to the makers and have furnished employment to many hundreds of women, as well as material benefits to their families. The sweatshop and this home contract work have only scratched the surface of the available supply of labor. The one operates in a modern plant located in cities and towns; the other in the unsanitary shacks in which the masses of the people live. As they come into sharper competition for the choice of labor, the advantage would seem to lie with the sweatshop, for labor in Porto Rico, like any other, will sell to the highest bidder, and higher wages can be earned on the power machines than by artistic hand-work.

Can Exploitation Be Escaped?

It took half a century to secure the existing safeguards for workers in the southern cotton mills, and the job is not finished yet. How long it will take to accomplish the same for sweatshop workers in Porto Rico it is hard to say. The proper protection of contract workers in their homes, and of the consumers of their products, is even more difficult. Where labor so greatly exceeds the demand, the workers themselves can accomplish little to improve their condition. And Porto Rico lacks experience, even if it had the desire to establish the rights of the workers. Certainly legislation now proposed in the interest of the workers, or tending to eliminate the Porto Rico manufacturer's advantage over his American competitor, would be interpreted as discouraging new industries. For that reason, if for no other, the proposal must wait upon a popular movement growing out of a more equalized supply and demand of workers.

The aim of this article is not to present remedies, simply to draw a somewhat unfamiliar picture. But one cannot refrain from expressing the hope that the Porto Rican necessity arising from over-population may not be the occasion for conscienceless exploitation by the sweatshop. Porto Rico undoubtedly offers an unusually inviting field for manufacturing requiring the operation of skilled hands. Such industries should pay well the capital and labor invested without entailing injustice upon competing manufacturers in America and suffering upon American laborers. A disinterested industrial survey of Porto Rico would do much for all concerned; in addition to bringing about better understanding between the mother country and its island possession, it might disclose a possible plan of industrial development which would be beneficial to capital and the workers of both countries. Porto Rico, it is believed, would welcome such a survey, which might prove the proverbial stitch in time.

G. L. Jones

The Plowing Match

AT London in the province of Ontario, I changed from the express train to the slowly puffing local. Filling and emptying again and again at the little way stations, this train was a sort of perambulating community center where country neighbors talked over the concerns of the county back and forth across the car as we crawled along toward Sarnia. We human beings seem to be interested in the same sort of thing everywhere—our work, sensational crime, and sport. These are things these Canadians talked of. But their work was farming, their latest sensation was the trial of two farmer's sons for murder, and the sport which held their attention was the plowing match then in progress near Sarnia. And of these three the plowing match as much overtopped the other two as the world series did the crop reports and the police news in the United States.

"You heard how it come out yesterday?" a square rigged

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Cornelia Barns in the Liberator

weather-bronzed man returning with his wife from a marketing expedition to London asked an equally tanned man in the seat in front of him.

"Some said that Indian, Nick Plain, was ahead—but I don't really know."

A girl in the seat back leaned forward and offered then the little London paper just out with its account, and the brakeman coming down the aisle made himself very popular by retailing the news gathered on his last run.

There was word back and forth of jointer plows, and sod and stubble work, of a man who hitched his team tandem, of what the Fordson tractor was doing and of a wonderful new caterpillar tractor that would take the hills. It was their great sporting event.

The match lasted three days and I found myself in time for the last session of it.

"Yes, ma'am! I know where the plowing field is. Been coming and going there all day!" said the man I hired to take me out.

Not many cars sped along the concrete road with us.

"Oh, they all been out there a long time," explained my driver.

We began to find them parked along the road as we neared the great brown field where the contest with tractors was going on.

"Not so many as yesterday," commented the man. "But it was a good day—yesterday. There was twenty thousand out here then."

WE stopped on a little rise and looked down on the tractor field. The brown sod was broken by the bands of fresh earth gradually widening under the slowly crawling tractors. Knots of anxious spectators—men and women—gathered at the ends of the rows and watched the progress critically. The men riding the tractors kept looking back at the furrows behind them almost as much as at those ahead. For this was not a contest of speed like a horse race, but a matching of the quality of the performance. I joined the nearest group—apparently the only outsider. Again the talk was technical, of "topping" and "overturn," of a curve in his line through which one man lost out because the judges didn't think the dip in the ground was enough to excuse it. And over near the end of the field where a man had finished were the judges examining his work, measuring his furrows, their depth and direction, using a yard stick along the whole length to make certain they were exactly parallel, scrutinizing the whole patch to see that nowhere was there a bit of sod or a spear of grass left on the surface. The caterpillar tractor was outclassed even in the eyes of an amateur like me. It simply couldn't keep a line as even as the others, but as a farmer explained it oughtn't to have been entered in the match. That wasn't what it was for. It was for hills where you were just as likely to have to go crooked as straight.

I left the tractor field and went on to where the men were plowing with horses as their ancestors had done immemorially. Here the crowd was even greater and the interest if anything more intense. Here was the best single furrow, the best strip of a given width, the best in sod, the best in stubble, the best with different sorts of plows—indistinguishable to my untrained eyes. Here every male spectator was a competitor, potential or past.

I talked with one of the pioneers of the district who boasted that he was ninety-three and had seen the fathers and grandfathers of the present entrants hold the plow handles at other matches. Dressed in a black broadcloth Prince Albert and a wide-brimmed hat he seemed the presiding genius of the district tying them to the past and consolidating their social life. He knew of all the plowing matches that had ever been heard of in the province, names of the winners of bygone years were easy on his tongue. He was busy getting in touch with the newer generation.

"I find there's plenty come over from the States for this. They got to get in with us. And I was just talking with a man from eighty miles beyond Toronto; took him a day and a night to get here, but he was bound to try his luck plowing with the rest. They all take their turn at it same as they used. Did you know there's been a plowing match in York County for seventy-five years? They ain't missed one so far as I know. Most places ain't had them that long and some is just starting them now. Every year there's more than I can get around to."

I LUNCHED that day with three men who understood the rural situation in the province. One of them was the local representative of the Department of Agriculture. He told me that there were 191 entries in the Plowing Match, and that the number had steadily grown from year to year. They were divided into all sorts of classes—men who were professional farmers; men from Lambton County; men from the whole province; open classes for all who wished to enter, including men from the United States. There were classes for men over 65 and for boys under 18 and one open only to Indians.

"Nobody started it so far as we know. It just grew," said the agricultural agent. "I suppose way back a hundred years ago two men did get together and match each other with the plow, but nobody remembers who did it. The Ontario Plowmen's Association runs this annual contest. The government has not helped much so far. Each county

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has its Plowmen's Association, of course, and they play against each other so as to keep up the interest.

"You ask if it is not like a labor union. Well, it is a little, only the farmers would resent the idea if they heard you say it, and there is this difference—it is a big one too—that this organization has nothing to do with how long you work, or how much you get for it, and the prizes are not won by how fast a man can plow, or how long he can keep it up, but by the kind of work he turns out. It is not an endurance test like one of those dancing contests you have over in the States, and it is still further away from anything like a bicycle race. It is a contest in quality. There's a sort of art side to it. Of course, there isn't much chance for cooperation or men working together. But that is true of most things connected with farming. Each man stands on his own, whether it is a tractor he's using or an old time single horse plow. It's a one man job."

THE more I saw of the Plowing Match the more I realized that it was a sporting event. As Mr. Tilden probably feels when he beats another aspirant off the tennis court; as Babe Ruth feels when the roar of the crowd follows his homer down the field; as Zev may have felt, when he knew Papyrus to be five lengths behind, so the winning plowman in the Ontario contest acted. In the lobby of the little country hotel I met him. I noticed first a great urn of beaten silver, two feet high, standing on the counter. It quite overshadowed the short slight man in front of it. The hotel clerk had his eyes fixed on it admiringly; a young boy stood with open mouth; the loungers in the lobby were all watching.

"It's the plowing trophy," the hotel clerk explained proudly. "He won it."

I turned to the man beside me. Evidently shyness fought with pride inside him.

"Did you win it?"

"Yes."

"See this," cried the clerk and showed me an elaborate silver dish with a revolving top—object unknown. Another prize! And then he pulled open the drawer of a case of flat silver, the third winning!

"I got thirty-five dollars too," said the young man, pride mounting in him beyond embarrassment. "That's for the county, and that one is for the tractor class, and that's the Grand Sweep Stakes."

He allowed himself visibly to throw a chest.

"Did you do the plowing on that caterpillar tractor?"

"Oh no, you can't go so good with them things. This was a Fordson."

"Aren't you awfully pleased?"

Then he actually relaxed into a gratified smile.

"Yes," he said simply.

It is a thing I have never seen among industrial workers engaged in mass production, this personal joy in the quality of their work. They may have it, but it does not show. Possibly because each one of them is responsible only for some one process, not for the whole thing. There is nothing to which they can point with pride and say, "I did that." Of course, the industrial worker is a far more socialized being. He works with and for his fellows. He learns perforce to cooperate, but he has lost something in the process.

These plowing matches are a sort of spontaneous outpouring of rural sociability. They are functions, so to speak. All ages and both sexes come in the family Ford in the morning, bringing elaborate lunches, to which they invite stray friends. I did not see a single horse parked among the thousands of automobiles. The people surged in and out of the tents where the county products were shown: they gathered and gossiped in the temporary post office: they discussed the chances of the different entrants. I did not see any betting, though I understand that it was going on. But most of all they filled the two tents where electric equipment was to be seen. If anything divided their interest with the actual Plowing Match itself it was this collection of electrical appliances.

Electricity in Ontario has been developed from the power at Niagara Falls by the Hydro-Electric Power Commission, a governmental body. It is sent across the province to the little towns and to many of the country districts at rates which are sometimes less than one cent a kilowatt hour. This means that it is cheaper to light a farm house with electricity than with kerosene; cheaper to run an electric cook stove than a coal range; and that vacuum cleaners, fans, toasters and washing machines, as well as cream-separators, corn-choppers, pumps and electric milkers are within the reach of practically everybody. So to the twenty thousand people at the Plowing Match the use of electricity was a vital matter, and they had come there anxious to learn of anything which would make their work easier. They wanted to see if other makes of stoves were better than theirs; to discuss a new way of heating chicken coops, to find out whether copper or wooden washing machines were the best; and above all things they wanted to find the local representative of the Hydro-Electric Commission and ask why in hell the lines they had signed for last month had not come down their roads yet. The people blocked the entrance to the Hydro tent, unable to get in till some of those slowly milling round and round inside came out. Old men and old women were just as interested as young farmers' wives, and the children were entranced. But none were more spellbound than three Indian women, who kept the demonstrator busy a long time with the details of operation of a white enameled electric cook stove and then retired to a corner for earnest consultation among themselves. It is a bit startling to see an Indian woman, even one wearing something approaching modern dress, whose blanket-wrapped mother had held deer meat on a pointed stick over the fire at the teepee door, preparing to buy an electric range. But why not, when her husband was a contestant in the Plowing Match? When one of her tribesmen was the county champion with single plows?

This gathering was the social expression of a people whose economic organization was in a more or less primitive agricultural stage, but who had the most up-to-date mechanical equipment that an industrial civilization could furnish them. The mechanical equipment had not so far changed the sort of things that delighted them. It had simply made it easier for them to have what they enjoyed, easier to leave an electrically equipped home in a gasoline-run Ford, or on a steam-propelled railroad; easier to carry hot food in a fireless cooker and thermos bottles.

It is hard to tell what a gathering like this plowing match does to the farmers of Canada because there is no standard to measure its effect by. It is not fair to compare them with the farmers in the United States because our farmers have nothing in their homes approaching the mechanical equipment enjoyed by these Canadians. It is difficult also to match the Canadian farmers' conditions against those of an

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industrial worker in the city—the worker who is possibly one generation removed from the farm himself—because the gains and losses are so different in kind.

It seems to sum itself up in the speech of a plowman at the concluding banquet to which all the winners in the different classes, and all the officials were asked. He was eighty-two, the winner in his class. I was told that he had said,

"When I first started in to plow there wasn't anything to do it with but a horse and a plow you stood between the handles of, and there wa'n't no way of finding out any other way even if there'd been one because the roads was mud to the hubs in the spring thaws and the fall rains, snowed in in winter, and only good in the summer when a farmer's got to work all the daylight he's got and no time to go riding about. And then they got in kerosene and coal and it wa'n't so hard on anybody, but even when we got machinery to do the threshing for us there'd got to be the plowing done in the same old way, and after we'd done it we was pretty much the same people as we was before. But now we got good roads so rain or shine it's all the same to get over them ,and we got automobiles to take us to see everything that's better'n what we got. And as for plowing, why you can get a tractor to do it for you. I'm too old to learn it over again that way, but the rest of you ain't. And now here's this electricity they tell me's going to do everything better yet. Well, I'm for it! Work can't be too easy to suit me—not even plowing. For if this electricity really does the work they say it can—and I have seen enough myself to believe 'em—I guess maybe it will change us too, and when we get to be using enough of it we will be more or less different from what we was before, and I'm not one of them that think farmers is so all God perfect that they don't need nothing done to 'em!"

And so the tradition is carried on. It is not conditioned by the tools they use—it carries through from the old ancestral plain plow to the newest tractor with its following "gang" of plow shares. The old man of eighty-two plowing his last match is no more interested than the youngest contestant, a lad of fourteen, who may be still turning his furrows at Sarnia fifty years to come.

MARTHA BENSLEY BRUÈRE

Dollars to the Volga

Labor's money begins to develop interesting by-products. On another page we review Mr. Boeckel's book on labor banks and their significance. Here a Friends' worker tells how two labor banks in the United States—the Amalgamated Banks of New York and Chicago; a corporation financed largely with labor's savings—the Russian-American Industrial Corporation, of which Sidney Hillman is the president; and the Industrial Bank of Moscow have co-operated successfully in organizing the difficult job of transmitting American money to Russia.

IN the last nine months 1,600,000 American dollars have found their way from some 60,000 Russian worker-emigrés in all parts of the United States to relatives scattered over the eight million square miles of Russia. This has been made possible by the "Rike," as the Russians call the Russian-American Industrial Corporation (Americans, I believe call it Raic) which concluded a contract last January with the Industrial Bank of Moscow for the purpose of simplifying and developing bank operations between Soviet Russia and The United States.

The office of the Remittance Department of the "Rike" is quick with energy and efficiency. This is mainly due to Dvorkin, chief of the department, who has put to good use the experience in American methods gained in two and a half years in the States. Dvorkin sits behind a shiny, orderly desk and directs the business with despatch and results. I asked him to describe the process by which the American dollars actually reached Ivan Ivanovitch over here in Russia. He answered:

The American end of it is simple enough. The difficulty is that the American banks demand a receipt from each individual before they will transfer the money to us, which means that we have to pay out the money in advance. Up until July it used to take about three months to deliver the money. When we received word that a certain sum of money was to be delivered, we notified the person, sending them a printed receipt form which they had to sign and send back before we delivered the money. That was the only way we could be sure of getting that receipt. Then when we received the receipt we sent the money, and had to require still another receipt for ourselves. That meant communicating three or more times with every one and much useless expenditure of time and money. But now we have simplified the process so that it only takes from three to four weeks. You can see for yourself from dates. . . .

And he turned over the pages of a bulky volume in which a record of all transfers was kept.

"But how have you been able to speed up the process so?" I asked. He went on:

In less than a year we have established 36 branches of the industrial bank throughout Russia—and of course where we have our branches it is simple enough. As the Russians want actual American dollars to take home and show their wives, we have to send the American currency to our branches by special courier. Then, when the notification comes from America, we send a printed slip to the bank that they are to deliver $5 to Alexandrovitch Pibakov, they notify him, secure the receipt and return it to us at once.

Where there is no branch we send the money through the post office. We concluded an agreement with the post office department in the spring whereby we send money in these special envelopes marked "with foreign currency," and send registered packages of these with a list to the post office. They notify the addressee, the envelope is opened in the presence of the post office clerk, the receipt signed in front of him before the money is delivered, and sent immediately back to us.

He ran through a pile of blue envelopes that had just arrived, opened them, and showed me the duplicate receipts that had just come back, showing that the money had been delivered. The receipt slips were printed some on pink and some on blue paper so that one could tell at a glance whether they were for New York or the Chicago Amalgamated Bank, through which the remittances are made.

The Americans do not seem to realize that Russia has a stable currency in the chervonetz which is worth more than $5 in American money. It would be much quicker and cheaper if the money could be delivered in chervonetz, for as it is the recipient only has to change his dollars back into Russian currency, and very often loses in the transaction. At the present time while the bank only charges 4 per cent to the sender, it costs them 3 per cent to get the money from abroad to Moscow, 2 per cent for insurance, and 2½ per cent extra costs which could be cut down by about half if the money could be delivered in chervonetz.

I have expected to find out that Dvorkin had had training in a bank. But no—he had been an ordinary worker before the war. When he was in America he had done clerical work; during the revolution he was connected with the railroad administration in Siberia, and had been imprisoned and sentenced to death by Kolchak on the charge of high treason; after a few months in prison he was released when the Red Army drove Kolchak out, and saved for this job of quickening the flow of American dollars into Russia.

JESSICA SMITH

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COMMUNITIES

Housing Progress in Western Europe

AN Englishman who sat opposite to me at an international luncheon in London recently, following some of the inevitable banter about American prohibition, surprised me by saying,

"If you Americans worry through the first few years of enforcement difficulties and stick to your prohibition experiment, you are going to produce a race of men and women so superior, mentally and physically, to any other, that if the rest of us don't follow suit, in fifty years you will be undisputed masters of the world."

To which I countered, "Other things being equal, perhaps. But other things are *not* equal. What I have been thinking is that if you British persist in pulling down all your slums and in building a charming little six-room-and-a-bath cottage-in-a-garden for every British family, other things being equal, and other countries not following suit, *you* will be undisputed masters of the world in *less* than fifty years."

Whether the elimination of slums or the elimination of alcohol will turn out to be the more potent factor in race improvement is in a fair way to be settled by a huge, though unintentional, laboratory experiment. For it is not altogether unlikely that we shall make prohibition effective and permanent, and it is certain that all of western and central Europe is committed to slum elimination and the erection of good houses.

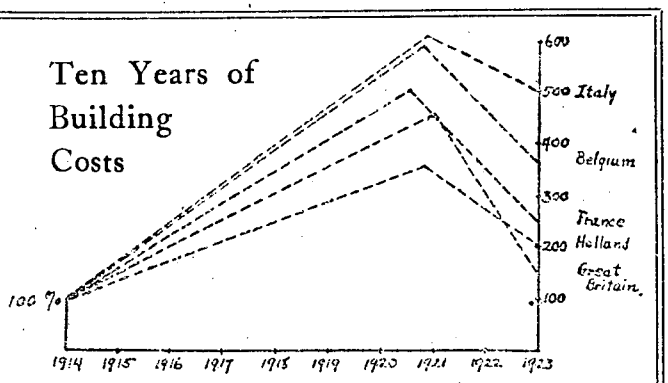
Present economic conditions hamper the carrying out of this program. War debts, depreciated currency, devastated areas and unbalanced budgets will delay its completion for a number of years. But the goal sought is clearly defined, and all faces are set towards it. Some, at least, of the means of reaching it are fully agreed upon. Everywhere a beginning has been made, and in one or two countries the completion of the program is actually discernible on the horizon.

There is a wide-spread, but fallacious view in the United States that European housing conditions are so much worse than ours as to make action necessary which would be uncalled for here. The reverse is true. We have housing conditions worse than any which now exist in London or Paris or Brussels or Amsterdam. Slum clearance has been carried on in London, for instance, to the point where nothing remains which is structurally injurious. They are planning to operate next on the so-called by-law streets with their rows of two-story brick dwellings, like the ones in Philadelphia—dingy and ugly, to be sure, but with no lack of air or light or privacy.

During the past year, I have made a point of seeing, under the guidance of visiting nurses or rent collectors or other competent persons, examples of the worst houses that remain in London and Paris, and also, more hurriedly, in other French and English, as well as Dutch and Belgian cities. And I can assure my fellow-countrymen that I have nowhere seen houses even remotely comparable to the ten thousand old-law tenements of lower Manhattan, built before 1879, with their hundreds of thousands of inhabited rooms devoid of any opening to the outer air. Nor have I seen any surviving layout as bad as that of the North End of Boston, with its four- to seven-foot streets between five-story buildings and labyrinths of rear tenements filling the interior of its blocks.

The people of Western Europe have undertaken national housing schemes, not because their need is greater than ours, but because they are more convinced than we of the importance of good housing in the making of good citizens and of the obligations of communities in connection with the house-supply. The *right to a home* is everywhere conceded, not only by reformers, but by practical politicians. The providing of homes for the lower economic strata, whether of industrial or office workers, has been taken over as a *public utility*. The machinery for handling it as such is fully developed in England and in Holland, and is in process of development in France, Belgium and Italy.

Each of these countries proposes, within the lifetime of the present generation, to abolish slums and near-slums and to re-house its working population under conditions that make for health, efficiency and contentment. There will inevitably be periods of inaction and of reaction, but the working people themselves will see to it that such periods are transient. They intend to live in homes worth working for and, if need be, worth fighting for—and the politicians know it.



THE above diagram shows roughly the post-war movement of building costs in percentage terms of the costs of 1914, at the face value of the several currencies. There was a difference of six months between the earliest and latest dates at which the highest peak of prices was reached.

Expressed in terms of gold, present-day building costs in France, Belgium and Italy are surprisingly close to what they were before the war. As their currencies return to par, their building costs will doubtless approach those of Great Britain, Holland and the United States, falling in nominal amount and rising in gold equivalent.

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So long as abnormal building costs make subsidies necessary, the tax-payers will object at times. But the situation has greatly improved in this respect everywhere. In Great Britain and Holland, the need for subsidies is already almost at an end. As soon as new houses can be built and rented on an economic at-cost basis, wholesale construction will be carried on under government auspices in all these countries until the entire population is properly housed. The acquisition and demolition of slum property can in some cases be made to pay for itself, but more commonly it involves expense to the tax-payers. For this reason, future opposition is likely to center about slum clearance proposals.

Municipal housing is firmly established in Great Britain and Holland, the two countries which have advanced farthest in providing homes for their people. Societies will continue to be active, but more for middle class and skilled artisan groups than for the rank and file. Work by Public Housing Offices in France corresponds to municipal housing in Great Britain and Holland and is well started. Whether the combination public-and-private agencies evolved in Belgium and Italy will be able, in the long run, to handle large-scale housing as efficiently as the entirely public agencies of the other three countries, remains to be seen. The degree and type of central control exerted in Belgium seems to me admirable, and I do not quite see how France and Italy will get on without something similar when their housing work expands. It must, however, be admitted that Holland has achieved her splendid results with a minimum of national machinery.

The housing standard is theoretically much the same throughout. In practice, it is highest in Great Britain, where the bathroom is a reality and not simply an ideal, and where the cottage in a garden is being built even in great cities.

In Italy and France, the large apartment house is still intrenched, and in Holland and Belgium the small one. The cottage in a garden is also being built extensively in Holland, Belgium and France, and is making its appearance in Italy.

An American would find heating arrangements everywhere inadequate, but so would he in the homes of the well-to-do. Undoubtedly we overheat our houses as much as Europeans underheat theirs, and which fault is more injurious to health is entirely open to argument.

We may get a somewhat concrete picture of what western Europe has accomplished in the way of new housing since the war if we tabulate the number of new dwellings built during the years 1919-22, inclusive, in proportion to population. We find that

	Families
Holland has built one dwelling for every.....	13
Great Britain has built one dwelling for every..	34
Belgium has built one dwelling for every.....	84
Italy has built one dwelling for every.....	184
France has built one dwelling for every.....	320

The above table must be used with many reservations: It is fairly accurate for the first three countries. It is only an estimate for Italy and cannot be called more than a wild guess for France. The figures for Belgium, Italy and France do not include houses built to replace those destroyed during the war, which add up to about 900,000.

It is clear, however, that Holland has done very much more in proportion to her size than any other country, and that Belgium has done more than any other country which had war destruction to repair.

If we go back to 1915, Holland has, since that date, re-housed one family in *eight* (12½ per cent) of her population with the aid of government loans and subsidies. It used to be said that re-housing one-tenth of the population would do away with slums. But the halt in commercial building aggravated the situation, and standards have risen, so that it is likely one-fifth will be nearer the necessary proportion.

Campaign orators, from force of habit, may continue to talk for some years about the "American workingman's standard of living" as though it were something vastly

Good Family: Good House

IF they do things better in Europe, when it comes to housing for wage-earners, they also do them very differently. In her forthcoming book on Housing Progress in Western Europe (Dutton), from which the accompanying article is taken, Mrs. Edith Elmer Wood tells how the municipal housing department of The Hague moves its neatly graded families about from house to house in an orderly and authoritative fashion which seems incredibly unlike the competitive scramble of both landlords and tenants in an American city.

This department is not waiting for some indefinite future date to begin slum clearance. It is clearing out slums as it goes along—very slowly and patiently, of course. Money is too scarce and the shortage too great for anything else. But the gradual method has the very great advantage that the families concerned can get individual treatment and continued supervision.

Heart and head, kindness and firmness, are admirably blended in the way these uprootings and re-plantings are managed. No condemned house is torn down until its inmates are moved to something better. But they are not moved all at once from reeking slums to charming little garden suburb cottages. In the first place, moving at all is a reward of merit. The cleanest, most orderly family moves first. It is an honor to be chosen, a source of mortification to be passed over. A spirit of emulation is thus created. The first move is to another old house in a somewhat better neighborhood—a passable old house which has running water, an indoor toilet, a roof that doesn't leak, and no vermin. In this probationary state, the family remains a longer or shorter time, according to its merits, before it follows the preceding family into one of the city's new houses. Even then it has not reached the city's best, which are reserved for a mentally and morally higher group.

Something like this, on a small scale, is going on in the work of *La Maison liègeoise,* the local housing society in Liège. The standard apartment which it puts up is provided with an alcove for a shower bath. But since funds are short, and the skeptical cry is raised, "Will the tenants use the showers anyhow?" the fixtures are being installed in only one dwelling out of ten, those tenants being chosen for the favor who seem to be the most intelligent, cleanly and progressive. Nothing more will be done till the other tenants ask for fixtures, when they will be installed very gradually, and always in the homes of the best tenants first. "If that system does not make bathing popular," says Mrs. Wood, "I am very much mistaken."

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superior, but our leadership in that respect has already passed from us. The working people of western Europe all have the eight-hour day. They have health insurance, unemployment insurance, old age pensions. Their money wages are still somewhat lower than ours, though not nearly so much so as they used to be; but in terms of purchasing power, there is not much difference, and the advantage is not always on our side. Most important of all, in a few years the working people of western Europe will be living, rank and file, in such homes as only the fortunate minority can attain under our hit-or-miss system.

We have more automobiles, it is true. But which will profit a nation more in the long run—to have 100 per cent of its people living in good wholesome homes, or to have 50 per cent rushing up and down in Fords!

EDITH ELMER WOOD

The Pittsburgh Plan

AFTER FIVE YEARS of study by the Citizens Committee on City Plan of Pittsburgh, the Pittsburgh plan is almost complete. The report on Pittsburgh Playgrounds was issued in the fall of 1920; a year later there appeared A Major Street Plan for Pittsburgh; this fall the unofficial planning group is making public its findings as to transit, parks, waterways and railroads.

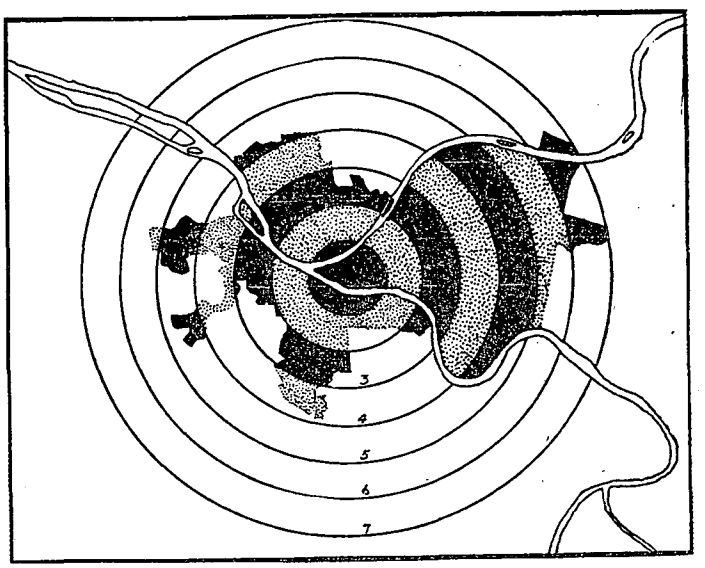
The transit report is already off the press; parks and waterways reports are in the printer's hands; and the volume on Railroads of the Pittsburgh District is receiving its finishing touches at the hands of a sub-committee which has had charge of the study.

Reference has already been made in the columns of The Survey to the reports on playgrounds (February 26, 1921, p. 768) and the major street plan (February 11, 1922, p. 763). It is sufficient at this time, then, to say that the street plan is a comprehensive circulation scheme whose execution calls for the widening, extension and improvement of more than a hundred miles of existing thoroughfares, together with the creation of several new highways which will facilitate access to every part of Pittsburgh and its neighbor municipalities; and that the playground report presents an equally comprehensive program for the development of a city-wide system of playgrounds and athletic field centers. Both reports are made flexible enough to allow of modifications made necessary by shifting populations and other changing conditions. The committee has tried to make its later reports equally flexible, so that the program will help to guide Pittsburgh's progress for many years to come.

Public interest in Pittsburgh, as in many other cities, centers just now on the solution of the transit problem, so it is natural that this report should attract a large share of popular attention. In 1919 the people of Pittsburgh voted $6,000,000 worth of bonds for the construction of a subway loop for street cars, and this money, never applied to that purpose, is still available. In its transit report the Citizens Committee recommends that the $6,000,000—or as much of it as may be required—be used immediately for the construction of two subway loops in the downtown district, these loops taking off the streets of the business section more than one-half the cars now using those streets, and thus relieving the traffic situation to a marked degree. These loops, and a third whose construction is recommended for a later date, are to be incorporated in a future rapid transit system, which according to the committee's plan would comprise two main lines and several "feeders." Rapid transit is not an immediate necessity, in the committee's opinion, and it is suggested that construction of such a system should be preceded by legislation which will provide a proper plan of community participation. Subways rather than elevated lines are preferred by the committee, which specifies further that a transit plan for Pittsburgh should not be limited by the city boundaries, but should cover the entire metropolitan district.

Early provision for at least one large waterfront park, with facilities for leisure-time occupation not presented by any existing Pittsburgh park; development of the downtown waterfront in such a way as to add to its appearance as well as its utilitarian value; the building of new entrances and the creation of new paths and roads to make the parks more accessible to Pittsburghers afoot; and the establishment of a city-wide system of neighborhood parks, are among the principal recommendations of the report on parks.

A wharf wall along the south shore of the Allegheny River, in the business section of the city, and development of a river terminal at that point, with easy access to railroad lines nearby, is an outstanding proposal of the waterways report. Provision would be made for the possible construction of other terminals at a later date. Recognizing the fact that the city is greatly affected by navigation conditions outside its own limits, the committee urges that the canalization of the Ohio River throughout its length be pushed by the federal government with the greatest possible speed. Suggestions are made, too, for improving the appearance of the waterfronts.



THE PATTERN OF PITTSBURGH

The concentric circles show distances in miles from the Allegheny County Court House. Better thoroughfare facilities have encouraged the marked development toward the east

In its report on the railroad situation, which is almost complete at this writing, the committee will probably deal with such subjects as the unionization of passenger terminals, electrification of terminals and yards, the bypassing of through freight around the city, and the improvement of methods of receiving and handling freight in the local terminals.

Nearly a quarter of a million dollars has been raised by individual and corporation gifts to finance this planning enterprise. The committee has maintained a considerable technical staff, but has made no recommendations except after careful study by a subcommittee working with the pro-

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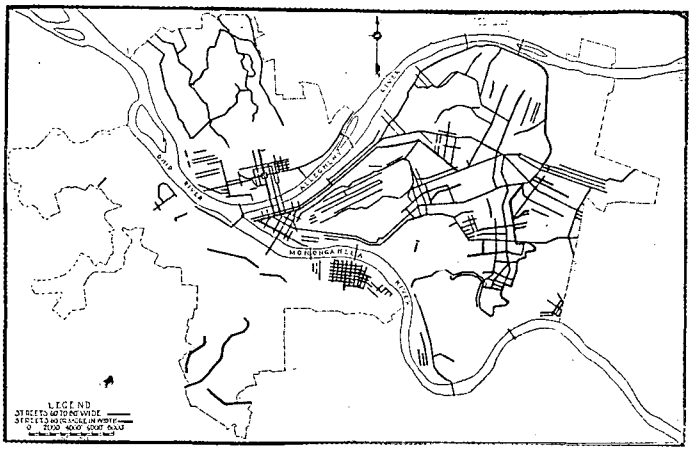

STREETS READY TO BE STRUNG TOGETHER

All Pittsburgh streets that are already sixty feet or more in width are shown on this map. Out of these scattered fragments and their narrow connecting links a coherent street system is to be fashioned

fessional staff — a procedure that has prolonged the task, but has meant a great deal in winning support for the Plan. During these five years the city has taken these long strides in the direction of sound planning:

Zoning ordinance prepared by the city planning commission, and passed by the city council and mayor. Zoning board of appeals created and now actively at work.

Joint planning conference created, including representatives of the city and county planning commissions and the citizens committee—the first time in Pittsburgh's history that machinery has been provided which definitely assures cooperation between the city, county and interested citizens in the planning of improvements.

Topographical survey authorized by city council, and the work begun by the city planning commission.

County planning commission legally established by act of legislature.

City planning commission strengthened by legislative act requiring recording of lot plans, which must first be approved by the commission, before such property can be sold within the city.

Bill passed by the legislature, authorizing appointment of a commission to study the creation of a metropolitan district in Allegheny County.

Initiation by the county planning commission of a county highway plan, to tie up with the major street plan for Pittsburgh.

This list of achievements is by no means exhaustive; but it points clearly enough to real progress in the city of the Triangle and the Hills. GEORGE KETCHUM

A Joyful Noise Together

THERE ARE grown men who can spend hours on end demonstrating to a small boy what charming effects can be produced by the modern equivalent of Poor Richard's penny whistle. There are other who never go by the windows of a music store without looking wistfully at the fancy harmonicas. And there are women galore whose irresistible impulse to make some sort of music for themselves drives them to hum an accompaniment to the victrola—and drives their friends and fond relatives to distraction.

An ingenious method of giving expression to these stirrings of desire to make a rhythmic noise, a method which pleased those who heard and gave sheer delight to those who made it, was demonstrated at the tenth Recreation Congress recently held at Springfield, Illinois. Indeed returning delegates, full of the psychology and sociology of recreation, agree that the adult toy symphony scaled the topmost peak of interest in the whole program.

There were 150 instruments—ukeleles, bass and snare-drums, tomtoms, tambourines, whistles and triangles—lying at the edge of the platform. The audience was invited to come forward and take its pick. There was a stampede which filled the orchestra in no time and presently, with the assistance of a leader for each choir who had been previously coached and rehearsed, the whole troupe was banging, whistling and strumming away in enthusiastic accompaniment to the piano and three or four strings which carried the air.

This was accomplished by using a simple device: a large chart on which the parts for each choir were indicated by an alphabetical code. As the professional orchestra fiddled, the leader, Professor Peter W. Dykema, pointed to the proper measure on the score and the choirs came in and kept silent in accordance with the code. Whenever the letter "U" appeared, the ukeleles sounded clear and bold; "W" brought the whistles into action, and so on. Gradations of volume were indicated on the chart by color; blue for *mf*, orange for *pp*, red for *ff*.

With a little rehearsal the impromptu orchestra managed to render very creditably Schubert's Moment Musicale, the Anvil Chorus, and La Cinquantaine. The delight of the players in their own performance was significant: faces shining, they insisted on repeating each of the numbers. One woman remarked, "I have all my life wanted to play something and you cannot imagine what a thrill it was to me to play my simple instrument in the orchestra."

The experiment was so successful that the Playground and Recreation Association is planning to publish a bulletin giving the working details, and Mr. Dykema is working on charts which can be reproduced in compact form and easily distributed. Here, at the very least, is a feasible substitute for hired jazz at mass meetings and conventions. The sociological and cultural implications of such group activity may safely be left to the reader. But is was an elegant noise!

CITY AFTER CITY goes through the same process before making up its mind about a community chest; a sort of battledore and shuttlecock with the chamber of commerce at one end and the social agencies at the other. It is a time-consuming and energy-wasting way of doing things, but it may be a necessary stage of education by conflict. Los Angeles is the latest city in which the chamber of commerce has undertaken to reach its own conclusions and hand over a *fait accompli* to the social workers. A committee has been investigating the central financing plan for some months; though the Alliance of Social Agencies (a loosely organized council) had representation on the committee its representatives were not consulted. A social worker inquiring about the plan was told that he would learn all about it when the prospectus for a chest was published! Fortunately Los Angeles seems now to have got through that stage, the chamber has begun to cooperate with the Alliance, and a committee of fifteen appointed by the latter is now at work on its own account in the effort to shape a working plan—later to be referred back to the member agencies—in which the point of view will not be exclusively chamber-of-commercial.

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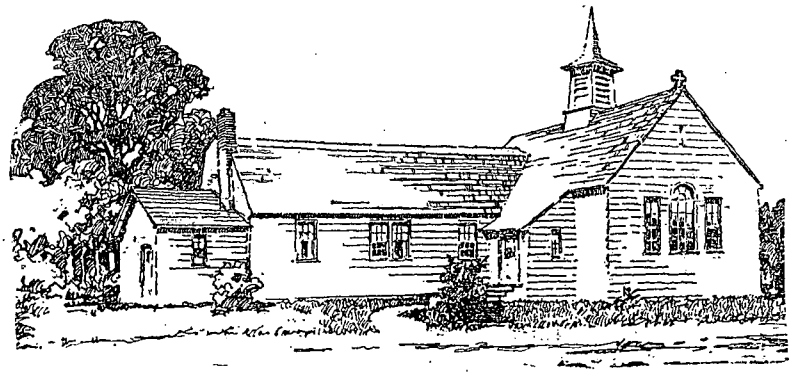
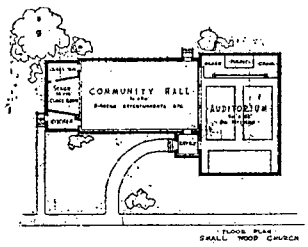
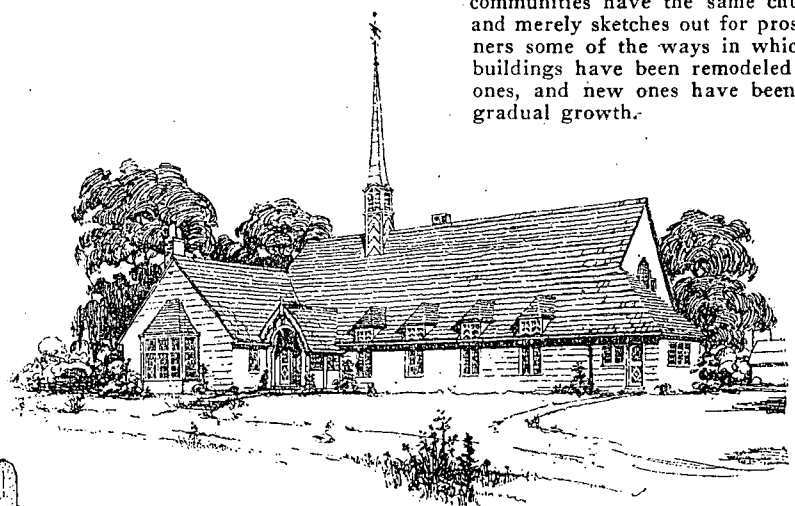
A Page of Country Churches

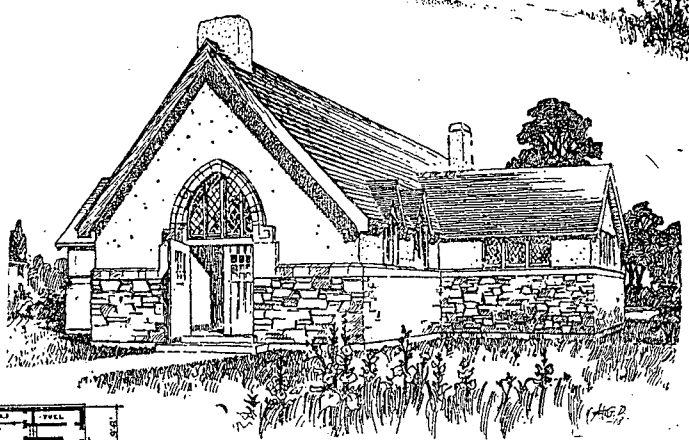


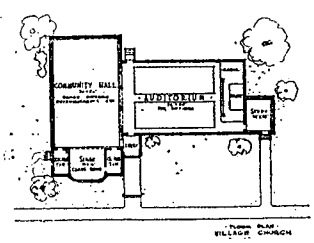
The conception of the church building as a community center has taken such hold that if the old one-room meeting house is not soon turned into something else it is likely to become a picturesque museum piece. The Home Missions Council, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York, has published a booklet of Progressive Suggestions for Planning Church Buildings, many of whose suggestions, as the examples on this page show, bear exactly on this question of the one-room church already in hand. The book, edited by Rev. Elbert M. Conover with the assistance of Albert N. Dobbins, an architect, does not offer stock plans or fixed estimates. It recognizes the fact that no two communities have the same church problem, and merely sketches out for prospective planners some of the ways in which old church buildings have been remodeled into modern ones, and new ones have been planned for gradual growth.



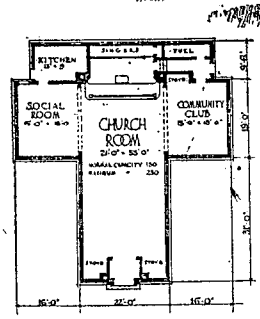
An economical plan allowing for a large community hall which may either open into the side of the auditorium by large doors or be completely separated from it





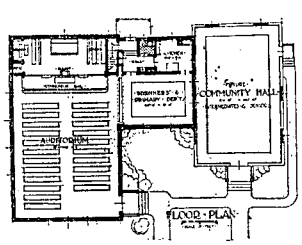


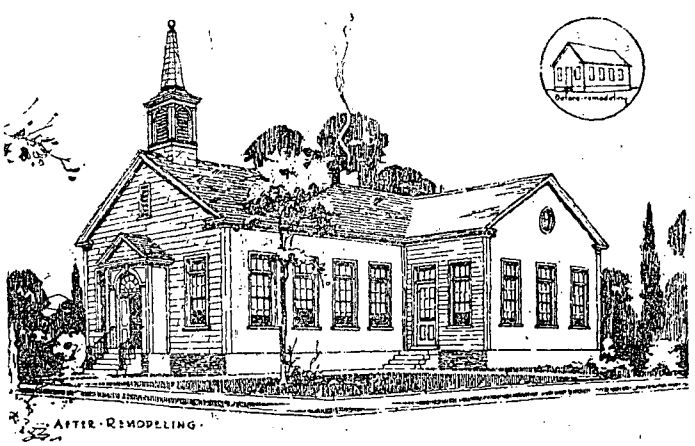
This quaint steeple tops a compact building with very generous seating capacity



The familiar box-church sketched in the small circle to the right has already grown into more pleasing outlines by the addition of a wing, a porch and a steeple. The plan shows how a community hall can be added when the time is ripe for it

Here is a little church following the traditional cross-pattern of the cathedral, to which a larger community hall may be added at the rear without marring the proportions of the building





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HEALTH

Back to the Parent: a Sermon to Health Workers

WE HAVE PLANNED and executed reasonably well for the health care of the child from the day when the mother is first aware of the new life within her until this child has smiled, slept, crept, toddled, walked, run, played and worked up to the age of self-support. We have provided by private and public means services which here and there are really good, for the expectant mother, the babe, the runabout, the school child and the employment certificate youth, on probation as it were in industry. Yes, we have done samples of good jobs; rarely, it is true, all kinds in one community, more rarely still of a degree of consecutiveness which has reached the same thoroughness of protection through more than one or two of these arbitrary periods of growth and development for the same child.

Barring various refinements or elaborations which will be developed out of the program now in operation in various parts of the country for child health, we can claim honestly that with the exception of the fascinating but still rather vacant field of child psychology, the machinery for applying the important facts of modern medical science have been well conceived and well executed. But what stares us in the face is the colossal insufficiency of our contacts, and the suspicion that perhaps after all we are only filling gaps rather than erecting a permanent structure.

In order to be practical and keep within our means we have promoted according to the fashion of the period one service or another directed to abate some abuse of childhood, or to save promptly the largest number of lives for the money available. We have emphasized now one, now another, period of child life as *the* one requiring the greatest attention. We played up the infant in arms, then jumped to the school child, and, suddenly aware of the army of children marching on to school with innumerable defects, and the horde of the still unborn whose teeth would be defective in school because their mothers were using too little milk and spinach, we swung the attack until just now the parents of the United States must think the problem of health is only that of pre-school and pregnancy. We have picked at the lives of a multitude of children; we have helped miraculously by the ubiquitous agency, at some time in the life of a great number of children, and still we have missed our mark, and to my mind will continue to travel blindly until we see that we are temporizing with our emergency stations and services, our demonstrations and our unloadings to the hands of public officers and departments—until we put the program into the hands of the parents themselves.

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SHOW me a thousand children throughout the length and breadth of this nation of wealth whose lives have been watched over as we believe a child life should be guarded from infancy to self-support under the care of health agencies. How many of our 20,000,000 school children have had prenatal, infant and pre-school care? How many of that small band of prospective citizens now all unconscious of the eager observance by the mothers of the newly learned rules of right living, will reach school through the perilous period of the years of independence under the guidance of a pre-school clinic? These will be the children of *families*, not of *systems* or *agencies*.

If we have one burning faith among us it is that children belong in homes of their own with other children and the companionship of their parents. The failure of society in general is measured chiefly by inability to save the parents and so permit them to live that they can provide homes worthy of the name, where health will come as a matter of course rather than as an accidental blessing. It is a part of the philosophy, the tradition, the instinct, the religion of all of us that we owe the child not only shelter and food and clothing, affection, an education and training for work but protection and guidance in health. Organization of services for children en masse, and provision through private and public institutions and agencies for health teaching and supervision will not carry the load, which must be placed directly where it belongs—upon the family and in the household.

We shall always be ready to care for the sick poor and gladly win them back to strength, where possible, and to the happiness of the independence in self-support. But what is there in the nature of health and its preservation that throws it into the realm of philanthropy? Is it not our most precious possession, for which we grown-ups make the most fantastic of sacrifices when we see it eluding us? Do we ask the fire department to pay the fire insurance policy on our house, or the police to send a check to cover the cost of burglary insurance? Is the baby's carriage a proper expense for the bread-winner to meet, but the cost of the life-saving advice at the health station a matter

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he just naturally expects the city or the church or an impersonal foundation to pay for?

We have been eager to teach the ignorant, to help the helpless, to encourage the down-hearted. But how often have we taught them to demand and supply for themselves services such as we have set up for them, as they buy their shoes, bread, clothing, chewing gum and tobacco? Americans are willing to tax themselves $1,800,000,000 for the tobacco they use, and in that to include a tax to the government of almost twice the amount appropriated for all official public health services, federal, state and local. They are willing to spend $800,000,000 a year on confectionery and include in that a federal tax exceeding the entire health appropriations of the county; to spend more on chewing gum, perfumery and cosmetics as well than they, as tax payers, vote for health purposes. It is not by increased appropriations for our public agencies alone, but through a change in the use of funds in our own family budgets that the public can play its part in completing a child health program.

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Is it not truly amazing that we can sit back to read the surveys of runabouts and school children which give statistical proof that the great majority of parents in this country are apparently incapable of the initiative and independence of action and courage to spend for health an amount which would be sufficient to protect the lives of their children? It would seem that that city counted itself twice blest which could show the greatest percentages of its school children whose eyes, teeth, bones, tonsils, or skin show defects due to the neglest, indifference, inattention, obstinacy, or parsimony on the part of the parents, the taxpayers, and the voters, for whose same children nothing is too good in time of sickness, or for clothing, housing or food. Why is it natural for the father of a family to be mortified when he finds that he has neglected his room until an equinoctial storm discloses the leak and spoils the bedroom ceiling, while he and his wife are but casually interested in the fact, called to their attention by the school doctor, that Johnny is beginning to show a leaky heart which might have been prevented if they had been quicker to get rid of Johnny's tonsils before he had that stormy attack of articular rheumatism a year ago? Many children go through the health mill passively. They are examined; their defects are corrected, perhaps; but in the process neither they nor their parents conceive the idea that this is merely the introduction to one of the new privileges of life—the opportunity to protect one's own health and that of one's children. It is only because the parents, the doctor and the school teacher have failed in their services to the child that child health organizations are needed.

Can we ever hope to develop personal and private interest in the health of the individual child in every separate home if our efforts are directed chiefly at setting up a public program for everybody's children to be carried out by bulk service and class management? We must picture to ourselves and urge upon our colleagues that no demonstration is complete, and no termination of the experimental or endowment period successful unless we have left the spirit of personal participation in health in the heart and soul of every parent in the town, even if we must leave for the service of the few the shell and token of good work in the shape of the public agency. Health is a home, household and family problem except for a few of the situations handled necessarily by the health officer for the community as a whole, (water, milk, communicable diseases, etc.) and until the parents of children see the vision of it, determine to get it for their children by their own efforts and through skill obtained at their own expense, no ideal or theoretically complete program of child health services will meet the situation.

Begin now to start cooperative self-supporting services for children, managed and paid for by their parents, the aim of which will be to so advise and serve both parent and child that no public agent, inspector, school nurse, teacher, investigator can find any preventable defect among these children or discover in their way of living lack of understanding or failure to practice the rules of healthy living according to their ages.

The most mischievous because the most plausible slogan of the powers of evil among an antisocial group in California was "The school is public, not the child." The sting in that challenge consisted in the obvious fact that in glorifying public, democratic social endeavor we have bred an irresponsibility and shiftlessness that does little credit to our ethics of the family bond of service to children. For the indigent, the improvident, the casual; for the parentless child, for the protection of our public investment in education, public services will be required and they must be provided with generosity, with science and with human devotion to each child; but the measure of our greatness rather than of our bigness will be the smallness of numbers receiving public care in childhood, the lowness of percentages of children at school with defects, the rarity of expectant mothers who are not provided by their husbands with such medical and nursing guidance as physicians now know these women all require.

PLEASE do not misunderstand my protest. I am not suggesting that we relax in our efforts to have imagination and information about life processes incorporated in the school teaching of children. Nor do I believe we can disregard the facts of experience and discontinue our efforts to have good health services available at schools, and for the children before they reach school. And I would not have you indifferent to the expectant mother and the infant in families which cannot afford or do not see the need of medical and nursing supervision. But just as you individually would feel you had failed in a most elementary duty to your children if a preventable defect or interference with their health occurred because you had not availed yourself of the doctor and visiting nurse, we must make it a part of our

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program to create a sensitiveness to health neglect comparable to that which is universally felt if a sick child is left untended.

As I sat last month facing a group of several hundred mothers in New York who were taking upon themselves the work of organizing a self supporting program of child health protection and general visiting nursing it seemed to me I saw the right spirit and the right solution. (See The Survey, Oct. 15, 1923: The Health Club.) Here were to be the offices which they, the parents, provided for their children; here the nurse—teacher, observer, servant of the sick and well; here the specialist physician trained to see the least deviation from the right development of body and mind of children.

Specifically I wish to suggest that in every community to which health workers go to initiate or develop further or better services for children, they lay at least as much emphasis upon the personal participation of parents in providing for their children's health as upon the necessity of baby stations, prenatal clinics, dietitians, school nurses and teachers of health supported by private or public funds. And furthermore, I hope a multitude of opportunities may arise for them to set up a plan, and assist in starting self supporting health services at private expense which will be so reasonable in cost and so continuous and thorough in character that the endowed and public agencies will be rendered largely unnecessary.

One of the reasons there has been such great success from the years of education in the causes and means of preventing tuberculosis is that every argument led directly back to an individual participation in prevention, personal self-protection, periodic examination to detect early signs of disease, and a sense of confidence and hope built upon the knowledge of competent professional direction. The part of the public in completing a program for child health will in my opinion be cooperation at private expense rather than expansion of public agencies, except those which are a necessary part of the education of the school child in health.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

Why Athens and Rutherford County?

FORTY communities pled for the southern child health demonstration, to be administered by the American Child Health Association under the direction of the Demonstration Committee organized by the Commonwealth Fund. Their health officers and public health nurses begged for a chance to come to New York to tell their story before the committee. To them "demonstration" spelled not a colorless set of administrative cogs to be set in motion, but a chance of convincing this obdurate legislator who felt that children's teeth were being overrated, of cleaning up that country schoolhouse where the teacher now was overworked and discouraged; of spreading the gospel of health in dingy town try school-house where the teacher now was overworked and firing with enthusiasm the business and professional men, mothers, teachers, nurses, and not least of all, the children themselves, who were working valiantly at one angle or another of the problem.

Though a second southern demonstration was added to the committee's program, which had included only one, still only two of the forty eager communities could be chosen. The committee asked: What were the problems on which action was needed? What had the community done to show that it could focus on a problem and give effective cooperation while the demonstration was in progress and effective promise of carrying on permanently when it was over? In how far were the claimants' problems those of the neighboring communities, and what opportunity would there be to spread the news of methods and accomplishments to those neighbors?

Athens, Georgia, had a reported infant mortality rate of 125 in 1922, though a city of about the same size in a neighboring state was able to flaunt a proud 51; it has a serious problem in tuberculosis and in the control of venereal disease. Its difficulties of health administration are increased by the large negro population, estimated at 40 per cent of the population of 20,000.

So much for the debit side of the ledger. On the other hand, Athens, under the leadership of an unusually able and enthusiastic health officer, Dr. J. D. Applewhite, had practically banished typhoid and malaria by effective control of its water, milk and sanitation; the Board of Health and the Board of Education cooperated for three years in the physical examination of all school children; the Board of Health and the Tuberculosis Society carried on nutrition work in the schools; the Clarke County Dental Society conducts free dental clinics for those unable to pay; and the Athens Chapter of the American Red Cross had constituted itself a central social agency to which are referred all applications for relief made to the county or city officials or to other organizations. It has two hospitals, an active country medical society, and a community tuberculosis council.

Athens is the educational center of the state; it is the home of the University of Georgia, the Georgia State College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts, the state normal school, the Knox Institute and Industrial School (colored) and the Jeruel Baptist Institute (colored).

From the governor down, Georgia officials had been anxious to obtain the demonstration for some city in the state. The committee received written pledges of support from the Executive, the State Board of Health, Superintendent of Education, State Council of Social Agencies, the University of Georgia, the State Normal School, and every local group, officials, physicians, hospitals, Rotary, Kiwanis, and the Chamber of Commerce. On the invitation of the health officer, the health department and the demonstration will have joint headquarters. Georgia with its current campaigns for birth registration and admission to the birth registration area, for school reform, and the enactment of a new Children's Code, gives earnest of a live interest in health and education; Athens, of an unusual ability to pull together for common welfare, and of an unusual ability to teach to the thousands of students who spend the school year in its borders lessons which they may find useful in other communities.

Rutherford County, Tennessee, started with a natural advantage, for it is the exact geographical center of Tennessee. Most of it is rolling farmland, but there is a mountainous section, and in the county seat, Murfreesboro, there are wood-working factories, hosiery mills and other industries.

Until recently the country has had no full-time health officer, but on October 1 the County Court voted to estab-

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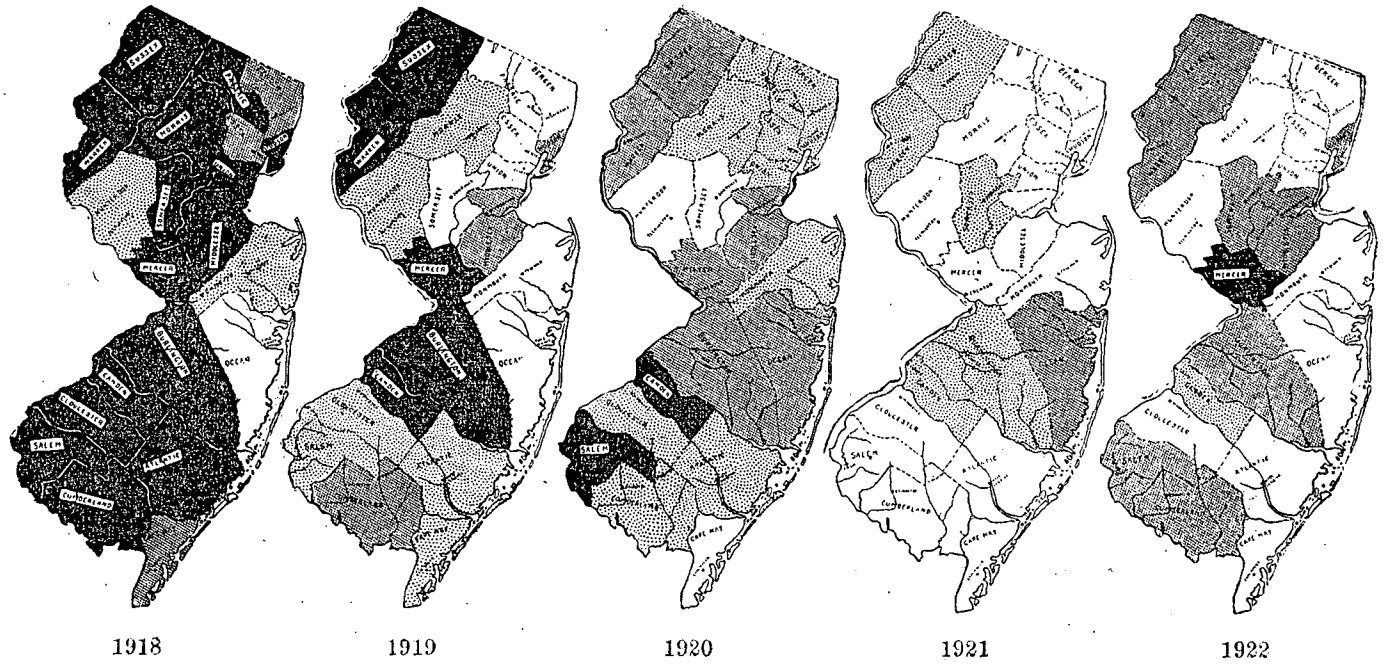

NEW JERSEY'S FIGHT AGAINST INFANT MORTALITY; FIVE YEARS' PROGRESS

The black counties have a rate of more than 100 *deaths under one year per* 1,000 *live births; the white a rate of less than* 80 *deaths per* 1,000 *live births*

lish a health unit which will inaugurate the demonstration under auspicious circumstances. An especially enthusiastic and able Red Cross County Nurse, in close cooperation with the county superintendent of schools, who has an unusual record of training and achievement, have carried on excellent public health work. Tuberculosis and typhoid are the special enemies of the county.

Murfreesboro is only an hour by train from Nashville and the state's resources, together with those of the many educational institutions of the capital, are behind the demonstration. Nashville is the home of George Peabody College, of Fisk, Meharry, Vanderbilt and the Middle Tennessee State Normal School. Detailed plans are under way for using the county as a laboratory for students who are interested directly or indirectly in public work, and as a training school as well for the county health officers who are to be sent to between fifteen and twenty counties of Tennessee this year through the cooperation of the state and the International Health Board.

While the new fields offer alluring promises of accomplishments ahead, the two centers where demonstrations have been under way have a substantial record of gains already achieved. Mansfield, Ohio, and Richmond County have been at work for nearly two years. All nursing work in the city and county has been consolidated; four nurses have been added from community funds, and two from demonstration funds. "Health" is a part of the curriculum of all the schools, and in cooperation with the teacher a definite course has been instituted to train teachers in the most effective ways of presenting it. Four health centers have been established in the city and county, with an enrollment of 1,063 children for health supervision; 2,733 school children, and 563 runabouts too young for school have been examined in cooperation with the local doctors. A full time pediatrist has been engaged by the demonstration to serve as a consultant to physicians and conduct these examinations, temporarily, as responsibility for them eventually will be turned over to the local doctors. Every high-school in both city and county has appointed a trained teacher of home economics.

Best of all, arrangements have been made, in cooperation with city and county authorities, for a full-time county health unit, which is to start work on January 1. Next year also will see a thorough-going coordination of private and municipal health work through a cooperative arrangement between the Community Chest and the city authorities.

Fargo, North Dakota, looks back with pride upon a year which witnessed the appointment of a full-time health officer by the city; the consolidation of all nursing work, with a districting of the city to prevent duplication; the addition of three nurses carried by demonstration and one by community funds; play centers in the city parks during the summer; a program of health education in the schools; and the appointment by the demonstration of a whole time pediatrist to cooperate with local physicians and conduct the examinations of babies, pre-school and school children. The last of the series of child health demonstrations (See The Survey, November 15, 1922, A Milestone in Child Health) is yet to be chosen. According to the original program it must be a city of the Far West, between 15,000 and 25,000 population, with an infant mortality rate of at least 100 per thousand live births, an eager desire for the demonstration, and a determination to continue by local effort, those parts of it which prove effective.

BEING "Schicked" was not popular with the young clients of the New Haven Health Center. Thousands of circulars had been distributed to parents, telling in five simple sentences how diphtheria can be prevented, but there were very few returns in the shape of children bearing the detachable consent slip. Then one day the medical director had an idea. He offered a little sample box of talcum powder, one of a number which had been presented to the Center, to a child whose courage was oozing. Her friends and her friends' friends heard

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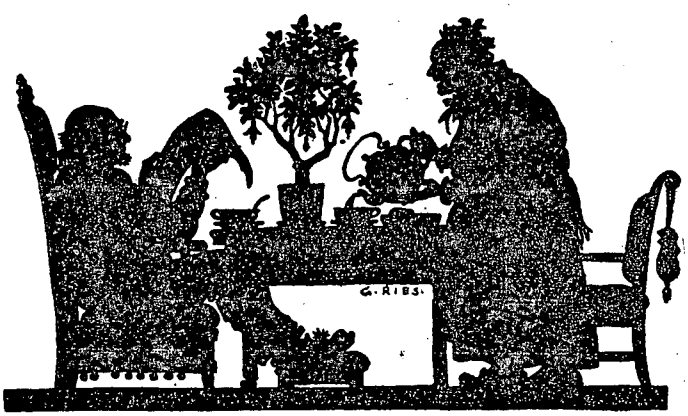
of the reward and came for theirs. In March there were 47 tests; in April, 154. Finally, sufficiently long in advance, it was announced that there would be a Schick party and that only those who had been tested were invited. At the party plans were made for a Schick contest; six teams were chosen of fifteen girls each, and captains and lieutenants elected. Each team distributed cards on which the "candidates" registered name and address and parents' consent, now apparently obtained with miraculous ease. The winning team secured 213 of the 500 candidates who were schicked that week. All who participated in the contest were invited to a movie party in a real movie theatre (lent by the management) at which health films were shown, and later the winning team proudly occupied complimentary seats at the leading vaudeville theater.

FOUR YEARS AGO 105 of every 1,000 babies born in Springfield and Campbell townships, Missouri, failed to live till their first birthday. Then Green County (which includes the townships) organized a full time health department. The United States Public Health Service triumphantly announces the rest of the story. The next year the infant death rate dropped to 96; in 1920 it went to 85; in 1921 to 76, and in 1922 to 61!

INSTEAD of going out to seek the clinic, the Jewish Board of Guardians in New York City has called the doctors in. On October 1 its Committee on Outside Activities opened four free clinics for the medical, neurological, psychiatric, and psychological examination and treatment of their clients. Cases are referred to the clinics by the probation officers, Big Brothers and Big Sisters, social workers, teachers, and in rare cases by personal request of the patient; here also there is an opportunity for diagnosis and treatment for the Jewish men and women on parole from penal or correctional institutions of the city and state, of whom the board is the legal custodian. An applicant for treatment is first examined by a trained psychiatric worker, who determines whether or not he really is a problem. If he is accepted, a social worker then obtains a social and developmental history of his heredity and life at home, in school, or in industry. In the meantime a physical examination is made in the medical clinic, and the report of the worker and the physician are presented to a psychologist who examines the patient to see if further treatment in the neurological or psychiatric clinics is needed. All the reports are coordinated by the original investigator. Contracts have been made with hospitals to care for those patients who need further treatment.

TO PREVENT tuberculosis, build health. With this philosophy the New York Tuberculosis Association has printed half a million illustrated leaflets, which add two to the traditional seven ages of man, and give nine sets of simple instructions for attaining and maintaining health for the whole family, from grandfather to baby. The first of the series—Advice for Mothers Before Baby Comes—was prepared by the Maternity Center Association; the next four, which deal with babies and children, have been edited and approved by the Children's Welfare Federation, that clearing house which coordinates the work and plans of 232 organizations for New York children; and the rest, dealing with young adults, the middle-aged, and the aged, are the work of members of the staff of the New York Tuberculosis Association. The leaflets will be supplied free to the workers of the organizations which have aided in their preparation, and to the nurses of the Henry Street Settlement and others who go directly into New York homes, and so can assure their effective distribution, one by one, to the persons who can profit by their advice. Should there be a demand for them, they will be supplied at cost to out-of-town organizations, making available attractive material, sponsored by experts in teaching of health in the home, at a mere cost of the added paper and printing. Four of the picture-covers of the leaflets decorate these pages.



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BECAUSE of the "sulferous smoke and savour of the firing" Edward I forbade the burning of coal in the city of London in 1306. Three centuries later Queen Elizabeth issued an edict prohibiting the use of certain fuels which menaced the health of her knights; it even is recorded that one man was hung for burning coal which smoked inordinately. Another four centuries have not solved the problem. Cleveland discovered upon investigation that in one section of the city smoke deposited nearly 1400 tons of soot, ash and tar per square mile per week! With the onset of cold weather smoke warnings are out again. The Chicago Department of Health warns Chicagoans to watch the 300,000 chimneys on homes and apartment houses and the stacks of 20,000 factories and 1,800 locomotives. On the one hand the loss from smoke is measurable in money; Chicago spends $4,000,000 a year more for its laundering than does Philadelphia; its smoke pall represents a wastage of $75,000,000 of fuel. On the health side the loss is incalculable, but enormous. Direct sunlight is necessary to destroy germ life and disinfect the clutter and wastes of crowded cities; it is essential for the growth of children as well as plants. In the wake of dark weather comes an immediate increase in acute respiratory infections and in infant mortality. Yet it is estimated that London allows a third of its light to be cut off in the summer, and a half in winter. The Chicago bulletin closes its warning with concrete and illustrated instructions on the proper operation of boilers and an appeal for popular education and interest to bring about the enforcement of anti-smoke ordinances and lessen the public cost of coal in money and lives.

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Golden Rule, Limited

DR. WARBASSE'S book on consumers' cooperation has been eagerly awaited by students and friends of the cooperative movement, especially by those who have been perplexed by the relatively slow progress in America of a form of economic organization and government through which democracy in England and Ireland, in Russia, Italy and on the Continent has achieved some of its most signal triumphs. In 1919 Dr. Warbasse published his great three-volume work on Surgical Treatment, in which with the aid of every device of graphic presentation he put at the command of his profession the concrete results of modern diagnosis and surgical technique. As a surgeon of experience and distinguished scientific accomplishment, Dr. Warbasse avoided the pitfalls of indiscriminate and unscientific advocacy of surgery as a universal panacea. He stressed the importance of accurate diagnosis and the application of such treatment as one would apply to one's self, sometimes requiring operation, sometimes not. Surgical Treatment is a magnificent example of the case method—clear, definite, objective.

Because of his scientific discipline and his unique acquaintance with experiments in consumers' cooperation, there was abundant warrant for the expectation that Dr. Warbasse would do for the consumers' cooperative movement what he had done for the surgical profession. Unfortunately, in Cooperative Democracy he has abandoned the rigorously objective and critical method for the method of the propagandist and the uncritically enthusiastic devotee. Cooperative Democracy is not a case book on cooperation in any sense of the word; rather it is a highly romanticized panegyric of the Rochedale idea as the savior of men's souls, the purifier of all sins to which the sons of Adam are heir, the universal panacea for all forms of industrial, economic, legal, social and governmental diseases. Dr. Warbasse is so transported by the glories of the idea that he permits his critical faculty to abdicate in the presence of whatever Rochedale experiment he finds it convenient to cite to illustrate its transcendant virtues.

For instance, in attempting to show that the existence of consumers' cooperative societies is of supreme advantage to organized labor because of the help they can render in time of strike, Dr. Warbasse cites among other examples that of the assistance rendered by the Central States Cooperative Association to the Kansas miners at the time when Alexander Howatt was in rebellion against the Kansas Industrial Court. He quotes a news despatch from Pittsburg, Kansas, to the effect that

> Miners here have taken new heart following the announcement that a ten car shipment of food is on its way to them from the Central States Cooperative Association . . . with the distribution of this shipment Kansas striking miners will have received from the Illinois mine district food valued at $200,000.

One would like to know what the effect of this activity was upon the cooperative stores of Illinois; whether this handsome gift was due to the economic strength of the stores or to the organized miners of Illinois who used the stores not for humanitarian purposes only, but also as weapons in the keen factional fight that was at that time being waged by the local trade union officials against the national leadership of the United Mine Workers in America. Apart from this circumstance, this case, like the later case of the Penn Central cooperatives, illustrates a point quite as important as the one Dr. Warbasse makes; namely, that where miners have been induced to use their funds to build up consumers' cooperative stores they have shown an incorrigible tendency to throw not only the Rochedale principles but all the elementary principles of sound business practice to the wind in time of strike and to eat their stores out of house and home and into bankruptcy.

This is not an argument against the advantages of the Rochedale idea to the miners or any other group of consumers. We believe with Dr. Warbasse that the advantages for wage workers especially in the consumers' cooperative movement are far greater than organized labor in America has fairly begun to make use of. But this is a matter of general knowledge. The Rochedale movement has too thoroughly demonstrated its soundness when applied to the specific purposes for which it is adapted to need such general advocacy. Indeed uncritical advocacy immeasurably hinders its progress. It is for this reason that we had hoped that Dr. Warbasse might have given us a full critical appraisal of such experiments as that of the Central States and the Penn Central Cooperative Associations against the background of the very complex industrial, social and political environment which has conditioned their initiation and precarious life—for it is well known to students of cooperation that the fate of these two experiments in particular is still a matter of touch and go.

We venture this criticism of Industrial Democracy precisely because we so earnestly believe with Dr. Warbasse that great spiritual, as well as economic gains will accrue from the wider application of the Rochedale idea, provided it is applied with discriminating regard to its availability in the particular situation, and also because we believe that no one in America is so thoroughly equipped as Dr. Warbasse to prepare such a case book as is needed to clear away the confusion and the endless obstacles that beset the path of consumers' cooperation in the United States.

In Cooperative Marketing: The Golden Rule in Agriculture, Herman Steen has attempted precisely such a case book for those who are interested in farmers' cooperative marketing. One after another, he takes up the history, methods and experiences of the California Prune and Apricot

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COOPERATIVE DEMOCRACY, *by James Peter Warbasse. The Macmillan Co. 493 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

COOPERATIVE MARKETING, *by Herman Steen. Doubleday, Page Co. 366 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CONTROL OF INDUSTRY, *by D. H. Robertson. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 171 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Growers, Inc., the Ohio Sheep and Wool Growers' Association, the Long Island Duck Growers' Association, The Burley Tobacco Growers' Association, The Dairymen's League Cooperative Association, etc., etc. By his clear description and analysis of every important agricultural producers cooperative in the country, Mr. Steen very largely justifies the introductory statement of Samuel R. Guard of the American Farm Bureau Association, that "this book is not propaganda; it is fact, line upon line, precept upon precept" —though that verdict is brought under shadow of question by Mr. Steen's sub-title, The Golden Rule in Agriculture. Certainly, however, the book leaves no doubt in the mind of the reader as to precisely what cooperative marketing is, to what situations it is adapted, what its technique is, through what process of trial and error it has arrived at maturity, what the producers have been able to accomplish through its application. Cooperative Marketing is a case book in a very real sense and is, therefore, of first rate value both to the general student of economics and to those producers who may desire to apply its principle and technique to their business. It is an inductive laboratory analysis of actual experiments and going concerns of the kind which is so greatly needed in the entire field of labor and industrial organization if economics is to attain full rank as an inductive science.

As a commentary on Dr. Warbasse's inclusive advocacy of the Rochedale principle, Mr. Steen's analysis of the failure of the Rochedale plan as applied to commodity marketing is interesting:

> The cooperatives [he says] founded by the Grange, The Farmers Alliance, The Farmers Educational and Cooperative Union, The American Society of Equity and similar movements had, generally speaking, been formed on Rochedale lines. Most such organizations attempted to market nearly everything their members produced, from green onions to dressed beef. . . . The Rochedale plan had failed all over Europe when applied to marketing though it succeeded brilliantly for cooperative purchasing, and it was gradually displaced by the Danish commodity plan.

Mr. Steen, in a number of places in his book, traces the evolution of the "commodity principle" from the mediaeval Swiss cheese rings to the early American creameries, from the American creameries to the Danish cooperative marketing associations and thence back to America, notably the California Fruit Growers' Exchange. His analysis of the individual associations, their early internal difficulties, their conflicts with the law of conspiracy and restraint of trade, their conquest of legal sanction, their accomplishments in behalf of their members is richly informative, stimulatingly lucid.

Nevertheless the sub-title of Cooperative Marketing does, as has been suggested, give rise to the question as to whether Mr. Steen is free from the propagandist's spirit. The criticism has often been made that a successful producers' cooperative for the marketing of a specific commodity inevitably tends toward complete monopoly with the evils which monopoly generally visits upon the consumer. Mr. Steen does not dodge the issue. "The commodity plan," he says, "does contemplate commodity control, and it often leads directly into monopoly."—But so far as the public is concerned he contends there is no ground for fear. He distinguishes between monopoly and "arbitrary monopoly." It is rather for the growers themselves, he argues, that this inherent monopolistic tendency is "a potential stick of dynamite." Should the growers push the advantages of cooperative marketing too far, experience shows that they are not unlikely to pull their house down about their own heads.

But this, as Dr. Warbasse points out, is too easy and summary an answer. Dr. Warbasse contends that these cooperative marketing associations exemplify the spirit of "profit-making business in full bloom." He finds no evidence of the golden rule in them—certainly not as they affect the consumer or the wage workers, who are frequently the real as contrasted with the nominal producers.

> Those who were interested in the theoretical aspects of cooperation once looked upon the citrus fruit growers of California as having cooperative possibilities. This organization succeeded financially; and now, from every standpoint, at the present time, it is a big capitalistic enterprise interested in getting as much profits out of the public as possible—and succeeding. These organizations are interested in securing a monopoly and a tariff duty on their products in order to keep up prices. The prune growers of California organized a "cooperative" producers' society when the consumers were buying prunes for nine cents a pound. The organization has been so highly successful that, as I write, the consumers pay twenty-two cents a pound for California prunes. The Dairymen's League in New York State was asked repeatedly to sell condensed milk directly to a large consumers' cooperative society. At first it refused to do so; later, when it was persuaded to do so, it charged a price that was higher than it was charging to profit-business. . . . The Danish agricultural producers have told me repeatedly that they sell their products in the "best market." They do not sell to the Danish consumers' societies if they can get better prices abroad. . . . The Danish organized farmers export their butter and eat the margarine made by the organized consumers.

With this phase of the cooperative marketing movement Mr. Steen does not adequately deal. For the most part he limits himself, wisely perhaps, to the problems of the producer. But under the circumstances, he might have been well advised to omit his characterization of the principle and practice of cooperative marketing as a complete exemplification of the golden rule. As Dr. Warbasse points out, the golden rule as exemplified by producers cooperative marketing associations becomes definitely the Golden Rule Limited.

One would like to see Dr. Warbasse and Mr. Steen cooperate in preparing a comprehensive case book on Cooperation. If they could achieve cooperation as collaborators, the result of their labor should be a classic.

WILL the reader doubt that this reviewer has derived profit and entertainment from Dr. Warbasse's and Mr. Steen's books? Will he be disposed to share that profit and entertainment? If so, let him be further advised to prepare himself for the adventure by reading D. H. Robertson's little volume on The Control of Industry. This is one of a series of Cambridge Economic Handbooks edited by J. M. Keynes. Economic handbooks, dealing as they must with large matters in general and summary terms, are likely to be as dull as one-volume high school histories of the world—all bones, all facts, barren of colorful incident, devoid of dramatic setting or movement. H. G. Wells has shown in his Outline what stirring excitement may be made to course through a one-volume history. Robertson's handbook is not built on the Wellsian model. Rather it follows the academic tradition. But it follows it with a fresh and delightful lilt, brings to it a subtle and engaging humor. Each chapter is opened by an excerpt from Alice's Adventures in Wonderland or Through

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the Looking-Glass. By the subtlety of his gift for succinct exposition, Mr. Robertson manages somehow to suffuse his text with something of Lewis Carroll's unique quality.

In his introduction, Professor Keynes states the main tasks of the professional economist as consisting

> either in obtaining a wide knowledge of *relevant facts* and exercising skill in the application of economic principles to them, or of expounding the elements of this method in a lucid, accurate and illuminating way, so that, through his instruction, the number of those who can think for themselves may be increased.

It is to the second of these tasks that Mr. Robertson has directed his aim. As all the forms through which control is exercised over industry—from the combine and trust to Guild Socialism, Cooperation and Communism—pass in review before him, he points out their salient characteristics, the specific function to which they are adapted, how they jibe or clash with one another. The book has the effect of a stereopticon lecture in the hands of a master of his subject, possessed of the gift of just, luminous and witty comment. For the student The Control of Industry is an excellent introduction to the wide subject of industrial control; to the general reader it offers a bird's eye view of industrial organization and methods which in sweep and authenticity is very unusual.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

Race and the Biologists

THE subject of race is interesting ever wider circles in America; at times and in places it seems to rival business prosperity and the weather as a topic of discussion. The Imperial Wizard preaches race prejudice from the housetops; a musician travels up and down the country to enroll Celts and Normans, Danes and Latins in an Anglo-Saxon league; a Dartmouth professor, to the applause of the multitude, defends the morality of exploitation of the weaker or more backward races by the stronger or more advanced. And the biologists for the first time get an audience. It is, perhaps, but human nature that they should use this opportunity to emphasize the importance of biological factors in human progress, that they should minimize that of other factors. It is also undeniable that, forced by popular oblivion into the seclusion of academic study, the scientist often expresses opinions so bereft of ordinary common sense that the man in the street, with no more than his personal experience to go upon, can trip him up. At any rate, it is sad to record that of the recent output of books on race and population questions only a small proportion teaches strictly the truth and nothing but the truth; and that even some of the best of these books contain errors which could have been avoided by taking cognizance of knowledge easily available outside the writer's special field.

Such a book is the new volume by the author of The Trend of the Race. It answers many questions in which intelligent people are interested; equally important, it suggests a number of new ones. It is composed in part of papers prepared for various occasions and periodicals; but these are put together so skilfully as to do away with repetition and make up a whole of logical sequence. The first three chapters recapitulate and exhibit the present state of knowledge as regards evolution and provide a most useful short summary for the reader who cannot afford the time to go through the ever flowing stream of literature on that subject. Here Professor Holmes' fairness in the statement of the views represented by different schools, and the care with which he guards contested statements from being too positive, considering present lack of knowledge or of experience pointing to the possibility of contrary explanations, is most valuable.

The middle section of the book, discussing various special aspects of human heredity and eugenics, is equally characterized by conservatism of statement combined with liberalism in the attitude to what are as yet open questions. Thus he opposes to the doctrines of Haeckel and Kidd on the selective influence of war no equally inflexible doctrine of his own but rather an array of considerations, omitted by them, that should enter into the study of the facts. This is true also of his treatment of the theory so often espoused that social amelioration, by lessening the struggle for existence, tends to the survival of the least efficient group in the community. If space permitted, we should wish to quote largely from the chapter on Social Betterment and Eugenic Progress which is the most thoughtful contribution on the subject we have read for a long time, incidentally also giving the results of recent experiments not hitherto popularly known.

The chapter on Heredity and the Mind should be read in conjunction with Dr. Vernon Kellogg's book on that subject now in the press. Holmes shows that the provision of liberal educational opportunities for all does not lead to a dead level of achievement but merely places the process of natural selection on a higher level; on the other hand, while there is as yet no sufficient knowledge to make possible the creation of genius by selective breeding, the great variability in inherited mentality does make possible the raising of average mental quality by that process.

One chapter is devoted to the subject of infant mortality and the question whether its general reduction means deterioration of the stock. Holmes, by various new lines of research, has come to the conclusion that this contention cannot be upheld. The next chapter, reviewing more generally the effect of civilization on natural selection, leads him to the belief that natural selection in our modern society is acting as vigorously as ever, "and in some respects even more so." There follow chapters on Sexual Selection, on Early Marriages—which he favors, on Birth Control and on Some Misconceptions of Eugenics. He accuses the advocates of birth control of having neglected to couple with their propaganda an equally serious endeavor to educate the biologically best families in their responsibility for maintaining the race.

Unfortunately, the remaining chapters of the book, on Immigration, Race Mixture and The Biological Fortunes of the Negro, do not maintain the scientific level of the rest of the book. Prejudices and loose generalizations of which he accuses other authors elsewhere seem to have crept in here. In the discussion of both immigrants and Negroes, Professor Holmes repeatedly explains on biological grounds phenomena which may just as well be due to social environment, that is lack of opportunity. For instance, in comparing the newer immigration with the older, he fails to mention the relative decrease of economic opportunities in the United States. He follows the common assumption, so ably disproved by Gavit, that the newer immigrants are politically more difficult to assimilate than the older ones. He for-

STUDIES IN EVOLUTION AND EUGENICS, *by S. J. Holmes. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 261 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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gets his earlier statements to the effect tnat no pure races can be distinguished in the modern world and that, with our present knowledge, a valuation of racial inferiority and superiority is impossible. He adopts an interpretation of American "nationality"—with consequent selfish national aims—which is historically new and not shared today by a large minority of good Americans. He makes the common mistake of attributing the mulatto's intellectual superiority over the pure Negro mostly to biological factors (without proof) when it can more easily be accounted for by the preference of whites for mulattoes and the consequent enjoyment of greater opportunities for them. (This obviously also affects the relative achievements at school, since mulatto children on an average will come from the better homes.)

In discussing the high mortality of Negroes in northern cities, he does not consider the possibility that subsequent generations will be better adapted to the environment, the more so since, on his own showing, most of those who have migrated to the North in the last census period were of mature age, and since the living conditions to which pioneers and their children are subjected tend to be worse than those of subsequent generations.

In defending eugenics against its critics he demonstrates the unsoundness of the view that because of the present state of ignorance nothing in that direction should be attempted; but he uses the same illogical argument in advising against race crossing "because we do not know that it is not bad." Because a population resulting from race mixture would be less homogeneous than one racially pure, he concludes that "it might suffer from the embarrassment of a considerable proportion of poor grade humanity"; while it might just as easily be argued that its diversity would offer a more ample opportunity for the occurrence of valuable variations and their survival in competition with the average. He talks of the typical Negro "with his strong passions, weak inhibitions and his habit of living only in the present" as a biological product, without hinting at the possibility that these undesirable qualities may be the result of environment or attempting to disprove such a possible hypothesis.

However, this brief review should not be ended on a note of criticism. The literature on human evolution and race relations is so full of prejudice that one must be grateful for a discursive and comprehensive contribution which, relatively speaking, is so free from that all too human defect. No student of those subjects should fail to read this stimulating book. B. L.

Is Social Science Social Ethics?

THE aim of the social sciences needs defining and Professor Ford has assumed this hazardous task. His definition is a reflection of the lately-established department of social ethics at Harvard University in which Professor Ford and Dr. Richard Cabot are co-laborers. The social sciences are placed in the category of the so-called normative sciences which includes logic and esthetics. Logic is assumed to be the science which evaluates truth, esthetics evaluates beauty, and by the same token, the social sciences completes the triumvirate by evaluating the good. Hence the social sciences have ethical aims.

The above position is assumed and defended in the very brief introduction which covers only seven of the one thousand and eighteen pages included in the volume. The position is challenging and consequently will be challenged. The reviewer leans toward a concept of science—all science and not merely social science—which embodies implications of the good, but he does in this connection hold the good to be a norm which has itself been established by some other science. The distinction between the *"is-"* and the *"ought-sciences"* is, like the distinction between pure and practical science, of doubtful value. If the "ought" sciences are to base their conclusions and judgments upon the descriptions of other sciences, then they are obviously not sciences at all. A science in order to be a science must secure its own materials within its own defined sphere. These doubtful distinctions would disappear if scientists could once come to view their sciences as methods of discovery rather than disciplines. Logic and esthetics are, of course, not sciences, since both arrive at conclusions from given premises; they possess no methodology for validating new premises, and this is the essence of science. This is precisely the error which is likely to result from a gross interpretation of social science as social ethics, namely, the creation of a *pot pourri* of partial and unrelated materials from all available sources with no advance in methods of discovering new materials.

Professor Ford's volume is a collection of writings gleaned from the works of more than one hundred authors and numerous reports. Out of this mass of material he has selected one hundred and thirty-two excerpts which fall under one or the other of his five main groupings of subject matter. The performance is more than creditable. Professor Ford has revealed a fine sense of discrimination and whatever faults appear are largely those attending all collections of selected readings. Such volumes always represent a certain amount of straining, as e. g., when we find James' famous chapter on Habit classified under Social Method. Anthologies, outlines, and collections of selected readings must also be subjected to the criticism which is directed at omissions as well as inclusions. One might have expected Professor Ford to include in a volume dealing with social ethics something from Holt, but Holt is not mentioned. And when Dewey is quoted, it is always from his earlier collaborations with Tufts. (It is not likely that Dewey would be caught saying, "Sympathy is a genuine natural instinct," p. 35, in 1923, although he did say it in 1908.) Dewey's more adequate and matured position in regard to ethics and its relation to social activity is, of course, contained in his Human Nature and Conduct, but this volume also goes unmentioned.

But these are minor criticisms. The book stands as a whole in the light of a distinct achievement. Given the premise from which Professor Ford begins, the content of his book stands as unified and sequential comments, discriminatingly selected from the best sources available for his purposes. It may be compared to its predecessor and only competitor in this field, namely, the Introduction to the Science of Sociology, by Park and Burgess. Both volumes are excellently adapted to various kinds of teaching, and they must be evaluated—not from the viewpoint of creative contributions to science—but as pedagogic tools. In this work we are presented with a panorama of social science which emanates from the writings of those who call themselves sociologists; in Professor Ford's volume on the other hand, we are presented with a picture of social science in which the sociologists are permitted to contribute very

SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND SOCIAL POLICY, *by James Ford. Ginn and Company. 1027 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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little. This may merely be a symbol of the difference between the University of Chicago and the University of Harvard.

E. C. LINDEMAN

The Profession of an Open Mind

WHEN Professor Tufts set out to make his study of education and training for social work, he found himself confronted with that troublesome and elusive problem of finding out just what was this activity, the training and education for which he was to analyse. His is not the only mind that has puzzled over that problem, and consequently his is not the only mind that finds a certain measure of satisfaction in the setting down of "five possible methods of defining the field." It is probable that most thoughtful social workers would agree with Professor Tufts in his choice of a method of defining the field in such a way as to relate social work to the adjustment of social institutions to the needs of human beings. The social work processes may be and are of many different kinds, but lying back of the technique is this general aim. Social institutions and organized professional groups have not in the past, at least, automatically adjusted themselves to humanity's changing needs, and out of the lag, to use Professor Ogburn's idea, came social work. If one agrees with that conception, he will probably appreciate Professor Tufts' remark that

> A profession which seems called upon to supplement in a sense a too narrow professionalism may well be on its guard against itself becoming too professional. And further, a profession which finds one of its distinctive tasks to be that of maintaining an open mind toward humanity's changing needs is not auxiliary in any sense that would imply inferiority in importance. Its importance is as great as its service.

All of the burning questions—and indeed some that have not yet ignited—on the subject of training young people are reviewed in a calm and orderly fashion. If the discussion seems to remain in the middle of the road and to refuse to extinguish some of the more combustible disputes, it is doubtless from the author's well considered judgment that a little more burning will yield beneficial results, and also that to formulate ideal standards is a thousand leagues removed from getting them adopted by an indifferent world.

The discussion of the use of the case method is commended to every teacher of case work in our schools of social work as well as to every one interested in problems of teaching; likewise the distinction between "training" and "education."

A diverting feature of this otherwise measured and stately discussion is a description of the present day conditions of employment in positions having to do with the treatment of criminals and delinquents and a brief review of recent developments in that field. This section was contributed by Dr. George W. Kirchwey and is in characteristic vein.

> Notwithstanding the impressive growth of the probation system, it must be confessed that it is still the slatternly Cinderella of social service. As a branch of the public servcie it is still too much the prey of partisan politics, its officers are far too few, too greatly underpaid and too generally untrained to cope successfully with the great task committed to them. . . . With all its defects the probation service is more advanced than is that of the after care of the dilapidated army of paroled prisoners. . . . The social control of delinquency is at its worst in most of the institutions which society maintains for the segregation and punishment of convicted wrong-doers.
>
> After sentence the convict is now in too many cases handed over to the lords of misrule to be exploited by them in their own interest in darkness and in secrecy. The impenetrable walls that shut the convict off from the world effectually shut out the interest, the sympathy and the criticism of the world. It is a jungle, a place apart. Such is the American prison at its worst, as also at its most typical.

If this book should get into the hands of any one of those virile young men whom it seems so important to bring into the profession of social work, surely these statements of Dr. Kirchwey's should prove a compelling challenge.

N. R. D.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR SOCIAL WORK, *by James H. Tufts. Russell Sage Foundation. 240 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

Labor's Money

MR. BOECKEL'S discussion of organized labor's efforts to conduct banking institutions is the first serious attempt to set forth the facts and to a lesser extent, the implications of this interesting movement. The book is primarily journalistic in the best sense, in that the record of accomplishment is clearly and interestingly told; and the author is reluctant to theorize or to draw conclusions.

What Mr. Boeckel finds is that although this movement is only three years old, there are today a dozen labor banks with combined resources exceeding $30,000,000, with a dozen more in process of organization. The book tells also of the extent of labor's interest in industrial corporations as an actual stockholder.

While it is too soon to speak positively, it seems clear that if the development in the next ten years is anything like the present rate of growth, it may result in a considerable nation-wide modification in banking policies regarding such important matters as the basis for extending loans and the rate of interest. This influence would be exerted because of the introduction of a competitive element, it would seem, rather than because there is any serious likelihood that the present banking functionaries are in any wholesale way in danger of being superseded. Indeed, it is highly probable that the extension of labor's banking activities will bring to the participating labor unions such an accession of conservatism, with the responsibility entailed in extending credit, that the growth of the movement will tend naturally to be slowed down. And organized labor will tend to appraise at more nearly its rightful worth the business judgment now employed in the conduct of the credit mechanism of the country.

Any movement which will bring both to the public in general and to the banking fraternity in particular a realistic sense of the underlying social importance of the functions of credit-granting in the community will serve a most useful purpose. For it would seem that the present credit difficulties grow less out of defects in the mechanism or even the motives now available than out of the lack of long-time economic insight which might profitably be employed in the conduct of banks.

In the present reviewer's opinion, really significant developments may be expected in respect to the opportunities which industrial workers may have to influence corporate conduct through their ownership or control of securities.

If through natural processes of purchase industrial workers can come to hold a substantial minority, and indeed

LABOR'S MONEY, *by Richard Boeckel. Harcourt, Brace and Company. 181 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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an eventual majority, of the securities of their companies, a voice in management may be obtained in such a way that with the responsibility will come both willingness to assume responsibility and ability to make wise decisions.

But, of course, the big lesson which labor banking activities can teach not alone to industrial workers but to the rest of the community is this: It can show concretely that the Federal Reserve System is so cleverly designed in relation to the banking structure, that whenever any group can get enough capital together to commence doing a banking business it can under our rediscounting facilities gain access to a tremendous volume of credit.

In this connection, it would certainly facilitate organized labor's participation in this process if payrolls in whole or in substantial part are turned over by employers to the checking accounts of their employes in these banks, as has been seriously proposed by the labor credit advocates in England. The appreciable increase of deposit resources which could thus be made available if organized labor's total weekly wages were thus deposited each week in labor banks would supply the basis for a volume of credit which, even if the plan were only 20 per cent successful, would eventually build up an unparalleled control of credit issue.

It should emphatically be recognized, however, that there is no complete assurance that under such conditions labor's banking wisdom could prove a match for all the economic difficulties that would be confronted. As a practical matter, answer to the question as to how commercial banks can by the regulation of their extension of credit mitigate the operation of business cycles, for example, does not seem to have yet been found. There is always the danger of too readily assuming that a change of masters can mean a change of objective and operating efficiency. Whereas the real difficulty is to a considerable extent human intellectual inability to cope with the extraordinary complexity of the economic forces at work today.

We are in great need in this country of what is being called a functional view of our economic organization. We are in need, in other words, of a recognition of the truth that each constituent element in the conduct of production and distribution as today carried on has come to its present proportions and influence largely because a need was there and service was being performed. Commercial banking, investment banking, and the whole process of credit issuance, are indispensable functions of this character. Mr. Boeckel's book will serve a valuable purpose if the facts it sets forth will call to public attention the essential and difficult character of the banking function in modern society.

ORDWAY TEAD

The Run of the Shelves

JEW-BAITING, AN OLD EVIL NEWLY CAMOUFLAGED, *by Horace James Bridges. International Press. 77 pp. Price 50 cents paper, 75 cents cloth, postpaid of The Survey.*

IT IS RATHER curious that Mr. Bridges, in attacking the position taken by Hilaire Belloc in his book The Jew (see The Survey for Aug. 15, 1922) should say: "In the past year I have seen no criticism and heard no alarm expressed, except by myself, about this work . . ." So far as the present reviewer has followed them, there were more unfavorable reviews of Belloc's book in American periodicals than favorable ones. Mr. Bridges' pamphlet is a detailed criticism of that book. He shows that the very scourge used by the new world leaders of anti-semitism has been given them by the Jews themselves through their adoption of the concept of nationality with the concomitant right of the countries where they live (and often have lived for many generations) to look upon them as "guests" or "aliens." Yet, apart from the teachings of a few Zionist extremists, this statement of the situation which, as Mr. Bridges points out, can be put to all sorts of clever uses by anti-semite dialecticians, really rests upon a verbal inaccuracy rather than upon an actuality. Zionists often use the words nationality and citizenship with a looseness of definition which leads them into all sorts of troubles when they try to combine Jewish nationality with, say, American citizenship. The fact of the matter is that our language contains no separate word that accurately describes the Jew's relation to Judaism—no more than it contains a word that describes the American nationalism of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (with its unity of purpose rather than of history or composition) as distinct from the nationalism of such countries as Poland or Italy or the newer nationalism into which assimilationists and certain Mayflower descendants are trying to browbeat the American people. So much of the discussion between the Bellocs and the Bridges really turns on the use of words—words which on occasion can be more deadly for society than poison gas.

IN THE LAND OF COTTON, *by Dorothy Scarborough. Macmillan Co. 370 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN INTERESTING and convincing picture of the externals of life in the cotton country of Texas—a picture of the charming and leisurely culture of the planter; of the year-in, year-out battle of the tenant for his crop, his livelihood and that of his children, against the pests of weevil and speculators, drought and flood, and his inevitable defeat. You close the book with a sense of having returned from a visit to a house of genial hospitality and well-bred reticences.

THE SHOP COMMITTEE IN THE UNITED STATES, *by Carroll E. French. The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS BOOK is a doctor's thesis on the shop committee. As such it is a careful and meritorious piece of work. But its chief lack is the absence of that sense of vital contact with the problem which is almost necessarily the shortcoming of a study based largely on documentary sources. The study hesitates to reach conclusions of a general character, and confines itself to being reasonably objective. The conclusions which are reached, however, in the final chapter on the shop committee and the trade union will probably gain the assent of most modern students of management and economics.

INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, *by Watson Kirkconnell. Henry Holt and Company. 217 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

UNEMPLOYMENT AND OUR REVENUE PROBLEM, *by John Sturgis Codman. B. W. Huebsch. New York. 64 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE TWO VOLUMES here under discussion, concerned as they are with diagnosing the problem of unemployment, interestingly illustrate how the doctors disagree. Professor Kirkconnell's study, as the title suggests, is dealing with a problem of unemployment in its broadest phases and is emphasizing a truth little appreciated beyond the world of professional economists, namely, that this is a problem which cannot be successfully coped with on a local or national basis. After stating further the reasons why in the present world situation a world approach to the problem of unemployment must be made, the author proceeds to outline the program he deems necessary as supplying the conditions which will make the removal of unemployment possible. His own summary follows: (i) The gradual restoration of the damaged factors in production, viz., capital, the machinery of production and human labour efficiency; (ii) the improvement of the machinery of distribution, by the removal of barriers and the rebuilding of destroyed transport systems; (iii) the curative treatment of that money economy on which modern industrialism is based; and (iv) an atmosphere of peace and cooperation, without which all efforts towards recon- (*Continued on page 233*)

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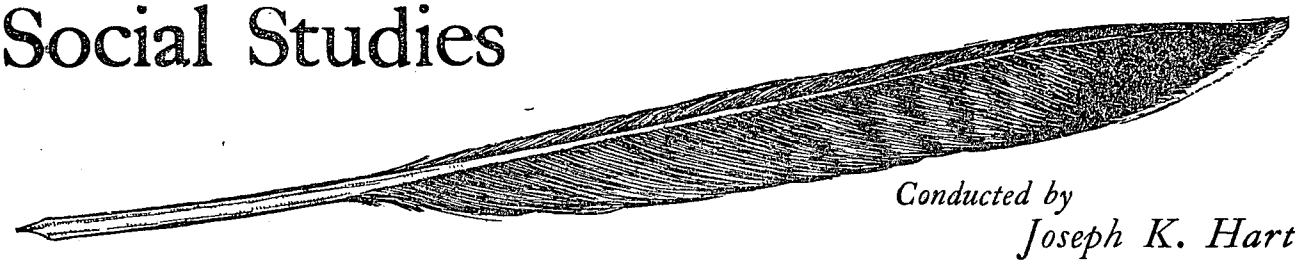
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

Group Loyalties

PRIMITIVE life was ever precarious: primitive peoples lived ever near the margin of subsistence. Survival was often a matter of happy accident. Elimination of the weak was universal. Fear was a constant guest in almost all primitive communities.

The group was the most effective instrument for fighting fear and death. For the group, survival is not impossible; but the solitary individual is almost sure to be overwhelmed. The group is a survival mechanism. The peoples who developed strong groups and strong group loyalties were most likely to survive. Those who failed in these respects failed to survive. The groups that survived left descendants, with traditions of group membership and loyalty. Group membership and group loyalty, the conditions of survival, have, therefore, been bred into the instinct and the culture of humanity by selection and survival.

Primitive dangers and primitive fears were very real: fear of the Unknown; fear of natural forces; fear of hostile neighbors; fear of starvation; fear of death! These fears were the responses of the primitive group to real dangers. Capacity to be afraid may be, under some circumstances, the condition of survival. At any rate, primitive fear was primarily responsible for the development in all early cultures of these unthinking loyalties, and for the growth of those legends which rationalized both the fears and the loyalties.

GROUP loyalty is, therefore, the secret of survival in the primitive world. This group loyalty is not, however, a phenomenon of intelligence with its neutral structures located in the higher neural centers. It is an irrational, unquestioning obedience to the folkway controls; it is of the nature of reflex action, or of habit, which is merely extended and complicated reflex action; and its neural centers are located in the lower areas of the nervous system, mostly, perhaps, in the spinal cord. These neural mechanisms expressive of fear and loyalty were necessary to group and racial survival for untold generations. They remain intact in the nervous systems of most of us today!

That is to say, neural mechanisms necessary to survival in the primitive ages of humanity remain as part of the equipment of modern man. Of what service are they to us today? The modern environment affords few of the dangers that surrounded the primitive group. For most of us, the old fears have little interest, at least when we are awake and rational. None the less, these latent functions in our nervous systems grow restive for exercise, at times. Whenever the environment offers us the chance to "get up a scare," we generally revel in it. Any reverberation of fear or danger from our instinctive past "feels good." We are not above creating "bogies" in order to get the feel of this luxury of a fear. Small boys do it on Hallowe'en; grown men do it in political campaigns and in war time!

But not only was the primitive group an effective instrument of survival; it was, also, a means of maintaining the folkways unchanged. Every primitive group that survived had experiences that were highly charged with emotion. Folkway modes of conduct had saved these surviving groups: the emotions released in the survival experiences became attached to the folkways. The folkways became sacred. They must be maintained unchanged, forever, because future survival-struggles will depend upon the literal repetition of the former experience. The group that survives will be the group that keeps its survival-modes unchanged!

THIS loyal and changeless group must not be thought of as a number of individuals bound together by external ties. The group is, itself, an individual unit, a primitive force: It is a projection of human energy, compacted of primitive will, undifferentiated. The so-called "individual" is not the unit, either of action or of value. The group is the unit; and each "individual" is but a more or less significant fraction of the whole. But the whole is not merely the sum of these fractions; it is more nearly something like their product.

Thus, unity and changelessness are the indices of the strength of the group, and these are to be maintained though they cover a multitude of "evils." No loyal member of the group will ever offer injurious criticism. No weakness of the group will ever be admitted or revealed, for the consciousness of defect is insidiously disintegrative. Criticism that would place the group in an unfavorable light before its enemies; or that would tend to make its members lose any of their loyalty; or that would make the group, itself, lose confidence in its peculiar rightness will never be indulged by any loyal member. The group has enemies enough on the outside: it can afford to harbor none within its ranks!

To be sure, under the ordinary conditions of primitive group life the likelihood of any such criticism is extremely remote. When the group finishes with the education of one of its young members, he has no mind of his own left: the mind of the group has become his mind! Moreover, the friends of the group have become his friends, its enemies his enemies; the past of the group is his own past, its future his own future; the evils of the group are accepted as his evils, and the gods of the group have become his gods. He asks for nothing but to be regarded as an unquestioning fraction of the group!

So through the development of these group loyalties, primitive man survived—and kept himself primitive. So group loyalty holds within itself most of the virtues and most of the vices of the ages. Little minds are always loyal to their groups. All great leaders of humanity—Moses, Socrates, Jesus, Luther, Washington—have been accused, and have been guilty, of disloyalty. Do these facts mean all they seem to mean? Loyalty versus disloyalty: the past, the present, the future! Our thinking must dig itself deeper into these mazes of contradiction between the virtues and crimes of men!

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

V. Churches and Religion

In our times, as in many other times, superficial people make disparaging remarks about religion. Some claim that "religion is out of date"; that "science is the new religion"; that "the free man needs no superstitions." Others insist that "religion is more necessary today than ever before"; and that "what we need is a return to the good old religion of our fathers." Some say we need fewer churches and more religion. Others say that all religions were invented either by priests to keep the people in ignorance or by tyrants to enable them to exploit the people more effectively. It is true, of course, that religions and religious institutions have been used at times to repress the people and to keep them in ignorance. So have all other institutions, including the school. Meanwhile we shall do well to inquire what religion is about and what it has done for men.

1. The Scope of Religions

How widely extended are religious observances amongst men? Are there any races that have no religious interests? How many different kinds of religions have been discovered? Have these various religions any elements or interests in common? What are some of the great religions of the world?

2. The Human Meanings of Religion

What does the religious man or woman get out of religious observances? When primitive man worshipped "the Great Spirit," what did that mean to him? What help, if any, did it bring him? Was this help real? Or was it imaginary? And, if it was imaginary, was it any the less real? Did religion help him to live? To fight? To suffer? Did it help him when he was defeated in war? When he was successful? Did it help him to die? Does religion mean any of these same things to modern men and women? Does it mean anything different? Do modern men and women have any of the same needs that primitive men had? Any different needs? How does religion help modern men and women?

3. The Social Significance of Religion

Does religion bring people together, today, or does it tend to hold them apart? Do churches bring them together, or do they keep them apart? Do people ever feel, any more, the old religious enthusiasms that stirred men like Savonarola and Luther? What becomes of those enthuisasms in these days? Should religion have any interest in the problems of this world? In human need? In social questions? In civic questions? In international questions? Should religion be in favor of war, or opposed to it? Should religion favor international peace? Should it work for some international organization like a League of Nations? Can Christians and Mohammedans work together for a common objective? Can Christians and Jews? Can Protestants and Catholics?

What are the ideals of the world today? Does religion have a real place in the thinking of this age? Can people be religious without going to church? Can religion be larger than the church? What are the things that seem worth while, today? What are the ideals, if any, that seem worth working for?

References:

The various "Social Creeds" of the religious organizations may be secured as follows: from the Federal Council of Churches, 105 E. 22nd St., New York City; The National Catholic Welfare Council, 1312 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C., and the Central Conference of American Rabbis, Rochester, N. Y.

See also: Charles A. Ellwood, The Reconstruction of Religion. Macmillan Co.

Questions on
Current Issues

On the Ragged Edges

Toward the center of things, order is heaven's first law. But around the edges, a considerable degree of disorder usually prevails. Francis Carlin, the poet of The Cairn of Stars, wrote:

> That which is in disorder,
> Scattered upon the skies,
> Forms the stellar border
> Of methodical Paradise.

Most of us, like the ancient Greeks, fix our eyes on the order that has developed at the center, and we consign disorder and all who favor it to outer darkness. None the less, "methodical Paradise" lies just inside the fringe of disorder, and draws much of its interest and some of its subsistence from beyond that fringe.

1. The Unstable Person

Always in the struggle for order, some have gone down. What sorts of individuals failed in our early pioneer life? In the agricultural community? Has the number of unstable persons increased or decreased as our population has moved toward and into the city? Does the city represent more, or less, order than was found in the small town, the village or the agricultural community? What has been the effect of extended city life upon children? Has the nervous child always existed, or is he a peculiar product of city living? It is possible for him to be brought within the organized life of the community, or is he sure to be eliminated in the struggle for existence? What is being done for the nervous child in your community?

2. The Sweatshop in Porto Rico

Why were sweatshops outlawed from the United States? Were those reasons honest and defensible? Should they be applied generally? Is a sweatshop likely to be desirable anywhere? Is industry always a virtue? Is work in a southern cotton mill always to be preferred to idleness? Is the willingness of a man or a group to work always to be taken as proof that the conditions of that work are "all that can be desired"? Is industrial development of a region always to be taken as evidence of "advancing civilization"?

3. Maladjustments in General

What is meant by "social adjustment of the individual"? Must the individual always conform to the "social"? Is the "social" a final standard of conduct or of life? Does the "social" ever change? What makes it change? If the "social" is final, is change ever moral? Is the "social" ever unadjusted? What would such lack of adjustment mean? Does it exist anywhere in the world today? Where do the ultimate standards of adjustment (if there are any such) exist: in the "social" or in the individual? Or in neither?

4. Order versus Disorder

Has humanity made any changes in its areas of order within historic times? Have such changes involved any periods of disorder? Is it possible to move from one range of order to another range without passing through a period or an area of disorder? Is order always a good? Is disorder always an evil? What makes either of them either good or evil?

References:

pp. 186, 189, 203, 209.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Crazy Hoosiers

TO THE EDITOR: I suppose Paul Benjamin's story about the insane in Indiana, in the Midmonthly for September, or most of it, is all too true. Perhaps we deserve that other people shall see us as we see ourselves. But it is hardly fair to pillory us, as Mr. Fishman is said to have done, as "the climax in criminal indifference to the treatment of the insane." Nor is it true to say that "due mainly to the niggardly policy of the administration, the state institutions, as compared with those of other states, have hardly got out of the stage of mere custodial care." It is true that they are loaded to the guards with old chronics, but, under the difficulties which come of overcrowding, our hospitals are doing psychiatric work of which those of us who know them and their men in charge are justly proud.

There are few states in which provision for the insane is adequate. Wisconsin has a common-sense system, under which *all* her insane are under at least fairly good care. Iowa has copied the Wisconsin plan fairly well. Pennsylvania is well along. But I know of no state, having the system of exclusive state care, with the possible exceptions of New York, Massachusetts and Arkansas, in which *all* the insane who need care are having proper attention. You can hardly hear a debate on insanity at a National or State Conference, or read a report from a board of public welfare, without seeing or hearing criticisms much like those which make us Hoosiers squirm when The Survey prints them. Of course this does not justify us. The pot is not whitened by calling all the kettles black. And there would be few windows broken if nobody threw stones who is not immaculate.

The fact is that *the plan of exclusive state care does not work,* never has, except for a few brief periods now and then, and never will. Under that system Indiana has built hospital after hospital, since 1881—the year the system of permanent state care was adopted; until now there are five. The latest of these is claimed to be, and I think the claim is just, the last word in hospital construction. But still the number of patients has increased faster than the new beds have been made up for them. The standard of care and treatment has been steadily raised. But the better they are cared for the longer they live; so that better care is one of the causes of both the *actual* increase and the *apparent* increase which comes of more confidence in the management.

It is asserted that "Indiana has not a single psychopathic hospital." Pray what *is* a hospital for the insane if it is not a psychopathic hospital? I know the medical superintendents of our hospitals. I have known some of them intimately for many years. I have seen their work from the inside, when I went round the state carrying in my pocket pass-keys to every ward. I assert that the psychiatric work they are doing ranks well with any so-called psychopathic hospital. Since 1919, at any rate, it has not been necessary for a man to be found guilty of the heinous crime of being sick, in order to gain admission. If comparatively few voluntary patients have been received, it is because our people are conservative and are slow to learn that it is no more disgraceful to be sick in mind than in body, indeed sometimes much less so. The Committee on Mental Defectives has pointed out how slow some of our counties are.

I am unalterably opposed to the plan that seems to be suggested, at least by inference, of taking the psychopathic medical work away from the hospitals we have, and lodging it with the newly invented psychopathic hospitals; making the present hospitals into what they began to be, in 1845, when the legislature created the "State Lunatic Asylum." What we need to do is to relieve the hospitals of the harmless chronics; (or, as Dr. Peterson of New York begged us to call them, "the protracted cases";) placing them either in colonies of the hospitals; or, as in Wisconsin, in county asylums, with complete state control and partial state support; or, perhaps, boarding them out, as in Scotland, France and Massachusetts; methods that are not merely economical but better in promoting comfort, happiness and—best of all—employment of the inmates. Then giving our competent medical men a fair chance to devote themselves to the recoverable cases, taking them in promptly, and the care of those advanced cases who are in such condition of mind or body as to require constant medical care.

At the same time I would like to see special wards for mental cases in every city, to which new cases might be taken and studied until a decision as to their need of prolonged treatment in the state hospital might be reached. If this were done no one would suggest that the state spend $250,000 for a psychopathic ward in a general hospital, in a city where there is already a state hospital with voluntary admission, a highly competent staff, and a psychopathic laboratory which has few if any equals in this country, or even in Europe.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Federal Power to End Lynching?

TO THE EDITOR: T. J. Woofter Jr.'s encouraging article entitled "Southern Backfires Against Lynch Law," leaves room for discussion, in that he seems to be maintaining a brief against the Dyer Anti-Lynching Bill. Let me say first, that the Dyer Anti-Lynching Bill was not, as Mr. Woofter says, "voted down on the plea that the state should handle lynching." On the contrary, after the measure had been passed in the House of Representatives by a vote of 230 to 119, it was not allowed to come to a vote in the Senate. A group of southern Senators would not even allow the bill to be discussed, and threatened to put a stop to the business of the nation, and did do so for some days, until the Republicans agreed to drop the measure. Under the rules of the Senate, permitting unlimited debate, force and strategy and not Mr. Woofter's reason prevailed.

Second, Mr. Woofter adopts the old fallacy which classifies lynching as murder. It was pointed out in the briefs submitted to the Committee on the Judiciary of the Senate, which endorsed the bill, that lynching is not simple murder but conspiracy to usurp the powers of the government delegated to the courts. Lynching is, or is alleged to be, punishment for crime. It is therefore not simply murder, but anarchic dethronement of government whose function is to inquire into guilt, and to prosecute through regularly constituted tribunals.

Third, the Dyer Bill would provide one form of guarantee that mobbists would be punished, which does not now exist. At present, avowed mob murderers are rarely if ever prosecuted. Sheriffs elected by mob constituents simply do not proceed. Place the conduct of these cases in the hands of the federal government, with a provision for change of venue, so that citizens of a county do not pass on the acts of their associates and immediate neighbors, and the likelihood of prosecution and conviction is immensely strengthened.

It is true as Mr. Woofter says, that the constitutionality of the Dyer Anti-Lynching Bill has been questioned. But there is weight of eminent legal authority in favor of its constitutionality, and the place to determine that question is the Supreme Court, after the measure has been enacted.

To one phase of the situation, it seems to me, Mr. Woofter did not give the prominence due it. And that is the effect on the South of the threat that the Dyer Anti-Lynching Bill would be enacted; and the effect on the country of the publication by debate in the House and the Senate of the lynching figures, disposing once and for all of the contention that lynching always occured in punishment of "the usual crime." It is not too much to say that the local anti-lynching campaigns in the South, of which Mr. Woofter writes so informingly, have been immensely stimulated by the congressional campaign. For the information of your readers, I may say that the congressional

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campaign is to be continued with increased energy by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Representative Dyer has arranged that the Dyer Anti-Lynching Bill will be the first measure to be introduced at the next session of Congress and the prospect for its enactment has been vastly improved by the work of the last three years. It is hoped, this time, that the bill will be thoroughly discussed on its merits, and that it will not be held up by the force practised in the last session by southern Senators.

HERBERT J. SELIGMAN
Director of Publicity, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, New York

A "Class-Conscious" Phrase?

TO THE EDITOR: Permit me to break a lance against the term "underprivileged," which has been wished upon the field of social work during the past few years. So far as I can ascertain, it emanates from the club-workers and is echoed by the club-sponsors—the Rotarians and Kiwanians.

The irony of the phrase consists, in large part, of the astonishing failure of those who roll this phrase under their tongues, to appreciate its obvious irony.

To the socially handicapped, opportunity should be a right, not a privilege. A paternalistic boys' club may still be under Privilege. Under Privilege-control the under-privileged class are a longer way under. We need less of privilege, more of justice.

THOMAS D. ELIOT
Northwestern University
Evanston, Illinois

For Our Bit, Thanks!

TO THE EDITOR AND JOHN FITCH: When I read of the capitulation of the United States Steel Corporation in the matter of the twelve-hour day, my first thought was of you two and of the gallant fight you had made through The Survey and in other ways—often very much alone.

Rather rarely in the social work field, it seems to me, does one see actual solid accomplishment as the result of work and effort. Here, however, you have it in no moderate terms. You may remember that I said in my remarks at the Hotel Astor dinner some two years ago, that I felt that any group who compelled, or helped other groups to compel the Steel Corporation to change its policy in regard to the twelve-hour day, would do more in the way of family welfare work than all the charity organization societies and kindred groups, whose much heralded purpose it is to maintain family life, ever had done or would do. I believe that most emphatically. Of course public opinion had much to do with it. I know also that public opinion had first to be aroused and gradually educated, and that it was along that direction that you administered telling blows. Please accept my heartiest congratulations. Let me tell you in most sincere words that I am as proud as I can be—more proud than of anything else I have done—that I was associated with you a little bit from time to time in your fight against the twelve-hour working day.

WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS
Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York; secretary Stockholders' Committee, United States Steel Corporation, 1911-12

The Run of the Shelves

(*Continued from page* 229)

struction are in jeopardy.—Mr. Codman is an ardent single taxer. It is not surprising to find that in his judgment the solution of the problem of unemployment can be reached through a radical attack upon the land problem. He is primarily concerned to get property and land to bear the larger if not the complete burden of taxation. And he reaches the conclusion that the imposition of drastic land taxes would have the effect of freeing material resources from monopoly control and thus set to work labor and material which are now held away from productive activity because of the restriction upon their use by

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JAMES G. McDONALD,
Chairman, Executive Committee.

November 5, 1923

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

DALLAS, Texas, has acquired a Child Guidance Clinic as a permanent organization, as a result of the six month's demonstration which has just been completed there (as part of the Commonwealth Fund program for the prevention of deliquency) by the Division on the Prevention of Delinquency of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. The clinic has been established as a beneficiary member of the Welfare Council of Dallas, which has guaranteed to support it for a period of five years.

Dr. Harold I. Gosline, formerly pathologist and clinical director of the Rhode Island State Hospital for Mental Diseases, is director of the newly established clinic. The other members of the staff are Eva Freeman, psychologist—formerly a parole officer of the Girls' Training School, Gainesville, Texas, psychologist at the Juvenile Court and an instructor in psychology at Southern Methodist University; Kate Dinsmore, chief psychiatric social worker, formerly executive of the Greenville, Texas Red Cross Chapter; assistant psychiatric social workers, Ernestine Lewin, formerly parole officer at the Girls' Training School, Gainesville, Texas, and Mrs. Helen S. Russ, a trained social worker from the Missouri School of Social Economy; and Mrs. Kate Scrimschire, secretary.

The work of the clinic will be under the immediate supervision of the Dallas Advisory Committee, which was organized to cooperate with the demonstration clinic, and is continuing to serve as a permanent group. The committee is comprised of representative people from medical, educational, welfare and business groups; its chairman is Dr. James J. Terrill, professor of psychiatry in Baylor Medical College; Elmer Scott of the Civic Federation is secretary.

AS A RESULT of the application of both Minneapolis and St. Paul for a demonstration child guidance clinic, and their pledges to establish a permanent clinic in each city following the demonstration period, plans have been completed to place demonstration clinic No. 2, which has finished its work at Dallas, at the University of Minnesota for a period of one year beginning this month. The university is situated about midway between the two cities, and adequate quarters are being prepared in the new library building. Both Minneapolis and St. Paul have specialized agencies for child welfare work, and selected social workers from each group will be placed in the clinic for periods of about four months.

The Minneapolis Permanent Child Guidance Clinic, is to be financed by four organizations: the Department of Public Welfare, the Board of Education, the County Commissioners, and the Council of Social Agencies. This permanent clinic will probably be located at Lymanhurst, a special school for pre-tubercular children, which is splendidly equipped with complete laboratory facilities. The Child Guidance Clinic will occupy one entire wing of this building, and will have access to the medical and laboratory service of the school. The Board of Management of the clinic will be composed of representatives of each of the financing groups of the university. The Minneapolis Advisory Committee to the Demonstration Clinic consists of Dr. Arthur S. Hamilton, University College of Medicine, chairman; Caroline Crosby, executive secretary of the Children's Protective Society, secretary; M. E. Haggerty, dean of the School of Education, University of Minnesota; Dr. Mabel Ulrich, member of the Board of Public Welfare; Dr. Walter E. List, Superintendent of the Minneapolis General Hospital; Lynn Thompson, County Commissioner; Howard R. Hush, Chief Probation Officer, Juvenile Court; W. F. Webster, superintendent of schools; and N. H. Hegel, director of the Department of Census and Attendance, Public Schools.

Pledges for the financing of the permanent behavior clinic in St. Paul have been given by the Amherst H. Wilder Charity which is an endowed philanthropic organization for promoting welfare work in St. Paul. This clinic will be established at the St. Paul Dispensary which is also supported by the Wilder Charity Fund. A large fully equipped dispensary is now being constructed and adequate space for the behavior clinic is being reserved in this building.

The St. Paul Advisory Committee for the demonstration clinic consists of Charles L. Spencer, president Wilder Charities, chairman; John R. Brown, general secretary, United Charities; Father John F. Doherty, director of Bureau of Catholic Charities; L. R. S. Ferguson, commissioner of education; Dr. J. D. Geissinger, chief of pediatric service, St. Paul Dispensary; Dr. Ernest M. Hammes, chief neurological service, St. Paul Dispensary; Judge Grier M. Orr, Juvenile Court; Pearl C. Salsberry, director of department of service and relief, United Charities; W. L. West, secretary, West Publishing Co.; Mrs. Helen Anderson Young, director of social service, St. Paul Dispensary.

CURTIS LAKEMAN has left his position as secretary of the New York State Department of Health to join the staff of the Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, where he will assist in developing and carrying out the publication plans of the committee. Mr. Lakeman was executive secretary of the American Society for the Control of Cancer before the war, served in the medical section of the Council of National Defense and later as assistant to the director-general of civilian relief of the American Red Cross. Henriette Walter, who comes from the special research staff of the committee on nursing education appointed by the Rockefeller Foundation, will make for the Joint Committee a study of the relation between vocational guidance, visiting teacher work and other related services in the public schools.

IRENE FARNHAM CONRAD has become secretary of the finance committee of the New York Charity Organization Society. Since serving as head of the department of social work at the Carnegie Institute of Technology Mrs. Conrad has been director of the Helen S. Trounstine Foundation for Social Research, in Cincinnati, and during the last year, extension lecturer for the Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work.

MRS. MAE STANNARD, whose dismissal from the position of superintendent of the Girls' Industrial School at Delaware, Ohio, stirred up indignation throughout the state, is now Ohio representative of the committee on care and training of delinquent girls, attached to the National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor.

NEW YORK STATE has been able to expand its service in child hygiene, through the action of the legislature in 1922 and the acceptance of the Sheppard-Towner Act in 1923. Dr. Elizabeth M. Gardiner, director of the child welfare division of the Rhode Island State Department of Health, has resigned that position to become associate director of the division of maternity, infancy and child hygiene of the New York State Department of Health, which is headed by Dr. Florence McKay.

AT THE MICHIGAN State Conference of Social Work at Kalamazoo, Charles C. Stillman of Grand Rapids was elected president. The Michigan conference brought to Kalamazoo, as speakers, three former Michigan men. Homer Folks, secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association and president of the National Conference of Social Work at its semi-centennial, and Owen Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, both graduates of Albion; also Paul U. Kellogg, the editor of The Survey, who is a native of Kalamazoo.

EDWARD M. BAKER, long identified with the Cleveland City Club, the Cleveland Stock Exchange, and many local philanthropic agencies, has been elected president of the Cleveland Federation of Jewish Charities to succeed the late Charles Eisenman. It will be remembered that in Cleveland the Jewish Federation and the Welfare Federation are both financed by the Community Fund. A memorial fund is being raised by friends of Mr. Eisenman; the income to be used in an annual award for outstanding work in community betterment in Cleveland.

CHILDREN'S LAWS are being studied by Elsie Bond for the New York State Charities Aid Association. Miss Bond was a member of the public health staff of the Commission on Russian Relief which spent several months in Russia in 1922 for the National Information Bureau, and had previously organized children's work in Czecho-Slovakia for the American Red Cross.

HILDA MILLS, well known throughout the case-work field through her work with Frances H. McLean on the field staff of the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, is leaving that position to become general secretary of the new family welfare society of Queens Borough, New York City.

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the owners of land. Mr. Codman's theoretical analysis of the problem is, of course, completely at odds with the statement of the problem of unemployment as made in such authoritative books as Business Cycles and Unemployment and the Stabilization of Business.

HANDBOOKS ON RACIAL AND NATIONALITY BACKGROUNDS. *Prepared by Minnie E. Newman. The Womans Press. 60 cents each postpaid of The Survey.*

WHAT A LOT of delightful surprises there are in the world! One picks up these six large tablets (not stone), knowing they are bibliographies and thinking what a sad world it is in which people are impelled to prepare bibliographies. But they prove astonishingly inviting. There is wisdom in the introduction: "Always use a map as a background for reading." "A hobby that leads to intelligent internationalism is worth riding." Moreover they are invaluable for speakers and students: whether they want pictures of Jerusalem or information on the position of women in French Canada, many sources for the material can be found in these handbooks. As a source of suggestions for a club program or an individual reading course, of recipes of other countries, or of a racial classification that can be remembered, they are equally useful. And what is more important one gets at the information without much effort. The rather awkward tablet shape proves to be an advantage when one is working with them. The handbooks are in six separate sections: Peoples of the Near East; Southern and Central Europeans; Slavic Peoples; The Far East; Spanish Speaking Peoples; French Canadians; and Peoples of the Scandinavian and Baltic States.

ESQUISSE D'UNE CONCEPTION DE VIE, *by Giurgea. J. Vrin, Paris. 149 pp. Paper. Price $1.33 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS SKETCH of a new moral philosophy for an age of widespread questioning and re-orientation is too fragmentary and tentative to be likely to exert wide influence. It is, however, interesting because symptomatic of a new trend towards a synthesis of science and religion which makes its appearance everywhere. Quoting many other authorities, M. Giurgea arrives at a statement of the principal social forces, and at a theory of law, in which emotion and intellect, contemplation and creative work are harmonized.

HUMAN EFFORT AND HUMAN WANTS, *by Logan G. McPherson. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 318 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

A STRONG ethical undercurrent characterizes this attempt at reinterpreting economic activity in relation to human life. Like so many other recent writers, the author finds totally insufficient and unacceptable the traditional presentation of economic laws in their bearing on real life. He thus evolves a theory of fair competition with the primary aim of rendering service, very different from the theory of competition still taught by orthodox economists and also contrary to the teachings of socialists. In both, he demonstrates, the concept of evolution is left out or insufficiently applied. Therefore he reviews the history of economic activity as a history of service in which production and saving are seen to function toward social ends.

CURRENT PROBLEMS IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT, *compiled by Lamar T. Beman. H. W. Wilson Co. Handbook Series. 542 pp. Price $2.40 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE general plan of this handbook varies from that of others in that it contains fewer long articles and more brief excerpts, with the result that the reader gets a rich variety of viewpoints on the various matters under discussion. They include municipal home rule, the commision plan, the city manager plan and non-classified literature on good and bad city government. The briefs, bibliographies and extracts from reports and other documents are most useful.

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AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

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TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth; an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, prin.; Warren Logan, treas.; A. L. Holsey, acting sec'y, Tuskegee, Ala.

WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—Spencer Miller, Jr., sec'y; 476 West 24th St. A clearing-house for Workers' Education.

POOR as church mice, German students and university librarians are unable to secure the American reading matter for which they have an eager hunger. A young German woman who is doing social work in the United States has brought us a list of twenty German and Austrian universities which need The Survey for students in sociology and economics. We cannot afford to give away subscriptions. But we can make a special rate, including foreign postage, on each subscription paid for by an American friend of German youth. One subscription $5.00; two $9.50; three $14.25. This is a gift worth while. In dollars it means only a little—in marks it means millions. Send check or money order to THE SURVEY, 112 East 19 St., New York City.

THE REAL STORY OF A BOOTLEGGER, *Anonymous. Boni & Liveright. 238 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"I BEGAN with nothing at all a few years ago. I'm still in my thirties. I have retired and I am worth a million. What's more, I was one of the first men in a new line. I was a liquor dealer under prohibition, and they call me a bootlegger. . . . But I didn't start out to be a bootlegger any more than Mr. Page or Mr. Morgenthau started out to be ambassadors." This autobiography of a successful bootlegger—an average American citizen (say his publishers), well educated, with a splendid war record—who is "for prohibition" although he admits that it may have made it harder for people to be temperate than before—is entertaining reading, and something more. Even after making all allowances for the bias of a man to whom the eighteenth amendment gave a million dollars in three years, the implications of his story are a significant commentary on prohibition enforcement. For instance: " 'We've got to have a rabbi,' said Bud. . . . I got hold of a fellow. He used to get eight cents a head killing chickens; now, thanks to me, he is worth $25,000. . . . It wasn't till 1922 that the government found out champagne isn't used for sacramental purposes. . . . In the last congressional election somebody asked a colored fellow if he voted wet. 'Well, boss,' he said, 'I done voted for the light wines and beer; we've got all the liquor we want.' " From the author's own wide observations he concludes: "The eighteenth amendment is here to stay—and so is bootlegging; it's on a sounder foundation than the regular, legal liquor business used to be." As a career he recommends it: "In my business you have got to have nerve and vision, but along with them you need hard work, sobriety and honesty." But he unconsciously provides campaign material for the Anti-Saloon League in his next sentence, "During my first days I saw a lot of good men go wrong through mistaking themselves for their customers."

THE UNITED MINE WORKERS OF AMERICA AND THE NON-UNION COAL FIELDS, *by A. F. Hinrichs. Longmans, Green & Co. 196 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

ANOTHER economist has written another economic study of the troubles of coal mining. In its class it is just about as good as any. No new facts seem to be dug out of the hills and the author tries to be scientifically impartial with the old assortment. He finally arrives at the conclusion that every coal mine ought to be unionized; a conclusion which will likely bring him a passing blessing from those who operate union mines and damnation from the others. It is a pity, though a fact, that coal is found underground. The author has evidently never gone deep enough to rub his back or bump his head on the roof of a mine.

THE FIRST YEAR OF THE BUDGET OF THE UNITED STATES, *by Charles Dawes. Harper & Bros. 437 pp. Price $6.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

GENERAL DAWES speaks here not of proposals but of actual achievement in effecting changes, both in struction and procedure under the powers given by the federal budget act of June 21, 1921. In form the record is a liberally annotated scrap book interspersed with the fragments of a diary. It is both novel and constructive. It is vital—made up of the kind of things which find their way into the files of a busy man's office. In it we see the generous and extraordinary personality actually at work in a high position of trust—holding up the hands of the chief executive "the greatest undertaking the mind of man has yet evolved," the government of the United States. General Dawes at the end of his year of service lays open his official file and fragmentary diary; and in it the deserving reader may find the materials of a constructive or life drama, the several parts of which in borrowed phrase may be set down as follows:

Act I. Helping President Harding to get back to normalcy.

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WORKERS WANTED

Wanted by the DENVER SHELTERING HOME FOR JEWISH CHILDREN, of Denver, Colorado, a National Institution, an EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, must possess the following qualifications: Must be well educated in English and Yiddish, be a good speaker in both languages; must know how to procure, train, and handle solicitors; must make his residence in Denver, take charge of Denver Office, but be on the road organizing and advancing the work of our Institution at least six months of the year. Will pay reasonable salary. Give full particulars and send photograph with first letter or application. Communicate with N. Halpern, 401 Empire Building, Denver, Colorado.

WANTED: As Assistant Head Resident of recognized Settlement in Middle West, young man, 30 to 35 years old with cultural background and university training. Only those expecting to find a life work in social service field need apply. Must be willing to start with fair salary and prove ability to earn more. Must have executive ability and be able to adjust to group life, good mixer with enthusiasm and pep. Fine future for right man. 4650 SURVEY.

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GRADUATE NURSES, dietitians, laboratory technicians for excellent hospital positions everywhere. Write for free book now. Aznoe's Central Registry for Nurses, 30 N. Mich. Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

WANTED: Person with teaching and case work experience who can speak Spanish, for position in Southwest. 4652 SURVEY.

RESIDENCE SPACE is available in a large New York Settlement for two or three young men interested in social conditions, who will pay board at cost and give some evening time in exchange for room. 4655 SURVEY.

WANTED: Band Master and Director of Music, Institution for boys. First class band. Good salary. Position now vacant. Apply to Mrs. Clara C. Berg, Secretary, Morganza, Pennsylvania.

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED: first class Gymnasium instructor for women and girls. Apply stating fully, education, experience, training, minimum salary. Address Philip L. Seman, General Director, Jewish People's Institute, 1258 Taylor Street, Chicago, Illinois.

WANTED: Social Worker for general family work in Barberton, Ohio; population 20,000, largely foreign. Salary $1,800.00. Give references and experience. 4644 SURVEY.

WANTED for modern Jewish day nursery in Philadelphia, a trained nurse, as supervisor, who is capable of working with children. 4640 SURVEY.

WANTED: Girls' club leader, in a large Settlement in Philadelphia. Apply stating qualifications. 4641 SURVEY.

COOPERATIVE PLACEMENT SERVICE. Social workers, secretaries, superintendents, matrons, housekeepers, dietitians, cafeteria managers. Miss Richards' Bureau, 68 Barnes Street, Providence.

WANTED: Trained worker with children, as supervisor of Jewish Day Nursery. 4642 SURVEY.

COMPETENT WOMAN, Jewish preferred, for health and diet work with malnourished children in residence. Resident position with responsibility for cottage management. Apply Superintendent, Jewish Children's Society, Levindale, Station E, Baltimore, Md.

WANTED: Superintendent for Berkeley Health Center. Must be able to qualify as public health nurse in California. Address the Center at 6th and University Streets for application blank.

A LARGE SETTLEMENT desires to make a SURVEY of its neighborhood. Knowledge of German or Yiddish desired. Qualified persons should give full information in first letter. 4657 SURVEY.

S. O. S. CALL. Opportunity for highest type rounded-out man "to build up the state at the precise point of its greatest disintegration" (The Settlement Horizon Ch. 2). In short, to head twelve year old community organization in one of the ten largest cities of the country. Salary O. K. 4659 SURVEY.

TEACHERS WANTED

TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

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SITUATIONS WANTED

EXECUTIVE with fifteen years' practical training in Social-Welfare work, desires permanent connection as financial or business director of established organization or institution. Special experience in financial and publicity campaigns. Competent to organize, finance, conduct and direct a business administration. Age 40. Married. Protestant. Exceptional references. Available January first. 4649 SURVEY.

WOMAN with fifteen years' experience in social work with children, desires resident position in home for children. 4618 SURVEY.

CASE WORK SUPERVISOR—Jewish—15 years' experience, desires position as executive. Juvenile work preferable. Good reason for change. 4645 SURVEY.

A YOUNG LADY desires a position as companion, traveling companion or teacher. References exchanged. Address Box No. 276, Farmville, Va.

EXECUTIVE position desired by cultured woman of education, professional training, and ten years' experience in fields embracing many and varied activities. Available January 1. Protestant. 4654 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT Orphan Home (Jewish) with ten years' experience in child welfare work open for position. Best of references. 4638 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED Child Welfare worker open for position, either North or South. Prefer Western Virginia. Best of references. 4614 SURVEY.

A HEALTH WORKER, graduate nurse, is available for position requiring executive and organizing ability. 4653 SURVEY.

STATISTICIAN and research worker, college graduate, with several years' experience in government and private social agencies, available January first. 4634 SURVEY.

REGISTERED GRADUATE NURSE and social worker with executive experience, available January first. Western New York preferred. 4658 SURVEY.

COLLEGE GRADUATE, age 26, four years' experience in Boys' Club work, desires position in Boys' Club, Settlement or similar social work. Part time work considered. 4656 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED institution executive, expert in buying and management of foods, desires connection with institution, school or cafeteria, industrial preferred. 4660 SURVEY.

(In answering these advertisements please mention THE SURVEY. *It helps us, it identifies you.)*

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BULLETIN BOARD

TEXAS STATE CONFERENCE OF WOMEN'S CLUBS. Wichita Falls, November 14-17. Secretary, Mrs. M. E. Tracy, 105 Hawthorne St., Houston.

INTER-COUNTY INSTITUTE OF PENNSYLVANIA: Harrisburg, November 15. Secretary, Mary S. Labaree, Dept. of Public Welfare, Harrisburg.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE: Annual Meeting. New Willard Hotel, Washington, November 15-17. 261 Broadway, New York.

SOUTH CAROLINA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Greenwood, November 20-22. Secretary, Pauline Witherspoon, American Red Cross, Spartanburg.

MISSOURI CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WELFARE: Columbia, November 21-23. Secretary, Homer Talbot, Missouri Conference for Social Welfare, Jefferson City.

GEORGIA STATE NURSES CONFERENCE: Atlanta, November 26-28. President, Jane Van DeVrede, Southern Division, A.R.A., 249 Ivy St., Atlanta.

FLORIDA PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION: Jacksonville, November 27. Secretary, R. E. Barnes, Florida Public Health Association, 507 Dyal-Upchurch Bldg., Jacksonville.

NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION: Albany, November 26-28. Secretary, R. A. Searing, 617 Goodman St., Rochester.

INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE OF RED CROSS SOCIETIES: Buenos Aires, November 25-December 6.

MICHIGAN HEALTH OFFICERS AND PUBLIC HEALTH NURSES: Lansing, December 3-8. Secretary, George H. Ramsey, Dept. of Health, Lansing.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION: Buffalo, December 6-8. Secretary, L. A. Wilson, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

BOYS CLUB FEDERATION: Middle Atlantic Conference. Atlantic City, December 7-8. Secretary, William E. Butcher, 144 Williams St., New York.

INDIANA SOCIETY FOR MENTAL HYGIENE: Claypool Hotel, Indianapolis, December 17. Secretary, Paul Kirby, 88 Baldwin Block, Indianapolis.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: Philadelphia, December 26-28. Secretary, Dr. James H. Kelley, 10 S. Market St., Harrisburg.

ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION: Springfield, December 26-28. Secretary, R. C. Moore, Carlinville.

INTERNATIONAL QUADRENNIAL STUDENT VOLUNTEER CONVENTION: Indianapolis, December 28-January 1. Secretary, Robert Wilder, 25 Madison Ave., New York.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

REPORT ON NEGRO UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES. Occasional Papers No. 21, The Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund. By W. T. B. Williams, Field Director of the John F. Slater Fund. c/o James H. Dillard, Charlottesville, Va.

EARLY EFFORT FOR INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION. Occasional Papers No. 22, The Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund. By Benjamin Hawley. c/o James H. Dillard, Charlottesville, Va.

WHICH MUST GO? AMERICA OR PRIVATE OWNERSHIP OF RAILROADS? By Emil Seidel for the Socialist Party of Wisconsin. State Office, Milwaukee. Price, 25 cents.

SELECTED PICTURES FOR THE FAMILY PROGRAM, YOUNG PEOPLE AND SPECIAL ENTERTAINMENTS. By the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures. The National Committee for Better Films, 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Price, 25 cents.

THE RURAL-TEACHER SITUATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Rural School Leaflet, No. 14, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. By Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University. Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington. Price, 5 cents.

CHRISTMAS CARDS

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PERIODICALS

Fifty cents a line, for four insertions; copy to remain unchanged.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF NURSING shows the part which trained nurses are taking in the betterment of the world. Put it in your library. $3.00 a year. 19 W. Main St., Rochester, N. Y.

MENTAL HYGIENE; quarterly; $2.00 a year; published by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 370 Seventh Ave., New York.

CURRENT PAMPHLETS

Listings fifty cents a line, for four insertions; copy to remain unchanged.

THE RUHR INVASION AND THE ETHICS OF REPENTANCE. By Dr. Henry Neumann, Brooklyn Society for Ethical Culture, 176 So. Oxford St., Brooklyn. Price, 10 cents.

THE HISTORICAL RHINE POLICY OF THE FRENCH. By Herman Oncken. With an introduction by Ferdinand Schevill. B. W. Huebsch, Inc., New York. Price 50 cents.

TEN-CENT MEALS, by Florence Nesbitt. 44 pp. (10 cents). How John and Mary Live and Save on $35 a Week—a weekly budget plan (10 cents). Weekly Allowance Book (10 cents). Am. School Home Economics, 849 East 58th St., Chicago.

CREDIT UNION. Complete free information on request to Roy F. Bergengren, 5 Park Square, Boston, Mass.

WELFARE FEDERATIONS, by Edward T. Devine, contributing editor of The Survey. A reprint of four articles from The Survey. How Not To Do It: Philadelphia—The Mid-West Spirit: Louisville—Where It Works: Cleveland and Detroit—The National Agencies: General Considerations. Price 50 cents; 3 copies $1; 25 copies, $6, postpaid. The Survey, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.

FINANCIAL FEDERATIONS, by William J. Norton, director of the Detroit Community Union. A reprint in handy pamphlet form of a series of articles published in recent Midmonthly issues of The Survey. Price 25 cents; 6 copies $1; 25 copies $3; postpaid. The Survey, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.

RUSSIA TODAY AND TOMORROW. A special issue of Survey Graphic in which the Russians themselves tell of the trend in proletarian culture, education, indusrty, drama, literature, etc. 30 cents a copy. The Survey, 112 East 19 Street, New York, N. Y.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTION

WARE SCHOOL OF TEA ROOM MANAGEMENT, 52-54 West 39th St., New York. Tea room, cafeteria and Motor Inn. In connection with Ware Coffee Shop. One of New York's successful Tea Rooms. Send for Booklet D. Day and evening classes.

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WANTED: Copies of the February 1 Survey and Survey Graphic, April 1 Survey and Survey Graphic, June 15 and August 1, 1923, Survey Graphic. Unexpected demand has wiped out our stock. Subscribers who do not need their issues for future use will confer a real favor by returning these numbers to us for use in libraries and colleges. The Survey, 112 East 19 Streeet, New York, N. Y.

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Better Times

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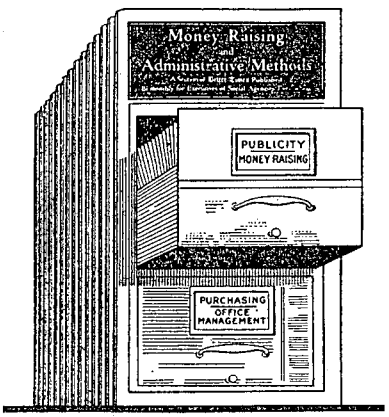

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Act II. Planning the after-war peace program.
Act III. Liaison, the bed-rock of the budget system.
It is in this last act that we find the real contribution of General Dawes. (See The Survey, Aug. 15, 1922, p. 604).

THE NEW TESTAMENT. AN AMERICAN TRANSLATION, *by Professor Edgar J. Goodspeed. University of Chicago Press. 481 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"THE VOICE of one crying in the wilderness, Prepare ye the way of the Lord." Like the guests who were bidden to the wedding feast, each of us has his own excuse for not heeding this invitation. Professor Goodspeed believes that many Americans do not feel a personal note in the cry because it does not come in familiar American terms. He has, therefore, rewritten the summons. "Prepare ye the way of the Lord" now reads "Get the Lord's way ready." By this sort of departure from the authorized version with which Professor Goodspeed's translation must inevitably be compared, the arguments of some of the epistles are easier to follow; but the gospel stories including the parables of Jesus could hardly be improved for simplicity and charm. Also "My Soul doth magnify the Lord" and those other glorious songs from Luke's gospel will undoubtedly be handed down unchanged by literary tradition, whatever happens to them otherwise. By modernizing the form in which the New Testament is printed, the translator has succeeded in making a very readable volume. The use of short paragraphs and the quotation mark bring out the colloquial character of the narrative portions very effectively. The work is too dignified in tone and too close to the original in its reference to be a popularization. On the whole it will not address itself widely to those who have not the historical and literary background for appreciating the King James version and those having such background will naturally cling to the form around which so much of their religious sentiment gathers.

Other Books Received

EVERYDAY MYSTERIES, *by Charles G. Abbot. Macmillan Co. 198 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IF TODAY BE SWEET, *by Ednah Aiken. Dodd, Mead & Co. 272 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A BOOK, *by Djuna Barnes. Boni & Liveright. 219 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE WOMAN OF KNOCKALOE, *by Hall Caine. Dodd, Mead & Co. 187 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

BARS & SHADOWS, *by Ralph Chaplin. Nellie Sceds Nearing, Ridgewood, N. J. 63 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN EXILE, *by John Cournos. Boni & Liveright. 66 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

VAN TASSEL AND BIG BILL, *by Henry H. Curran. Charles Scribner's Sons. 311 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE MESSAGE OF AQUARIA, *by Harriette A. Curtiss and F. Homer Curtiss. The Curtiss Philosophic Book Co. 487 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

NEW LANDS, *by Charles Fort. Boni & Liveright. 249 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CINDER BUGGY, *by Garet Garrett. E. P. Dutton & Co. 357 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PATUFFA, *by Beatrice Harraden. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 375 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE EIGHTH WONDER AND OTHER STORIES, *by A. S. M. Hutchinson. Little, Brown & Co. 283 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PAUL, THE SON OF KISH, *by Lyman L. Henry. University of Chicago Press. 356 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

STRING MASTERY, *by Frederick H. Martens. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 360 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE LOVE CHILD, *by Bertha P. Moore. Thomas Seltzer. 253 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE HOPEFUL JOURNEY, *by Beatrice K. Seymour. Thomas Seltzer. 403 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MARCHING ON, *by Ray Strachey. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 365 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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(See also page 239)

How to Own Your Own Home. By John M. Gries and James S. Taylor, Division of Building and Housing, Bureau of Standards. Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price 5 cents.

Standards of Probation. By Edwin J. Cooley. Magistrates' Courts of New York City, 300 Mulberry St.

The Social Principles of Jesus. By G. Bromlay Oxnam. Spanish American Institute Press, Gardena, Calif. Price 25 cents.

Safety From Fire. Fire Protection Engineering as Applied to Construction and Occupancy of Buildings. By Wharton Clay and Erwin M. Lurie. Associated Metal Lath Manufacturers, 123 West Madison St., Chicago, Ill.

Public Ownership, Here and Abroad. By Harry W. Laidler. League for Industrial Democracy, 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Price 15 cents, 10 copies $1.00.

Progressive Suggestions for Planning Church Buildings. Edited by Elbert M. Conover. The Home Missions Council, 156 Fifth Ave., New York. Price 50 cents.

A National Plan Study Brief. By Warren H. Manning, Landscape Architecture Supplement. Carl Parker, Bus. Mgr. Brookline 46, Mass.

What the League of Nations Has Accomplished. By Arthur Sweetser. The League Of Nations Non-Partisan Association, 15 West 37th St., New York. Price 25 cents.

Germany's Capacity to Pay. By Harold G. Moulton and Constantine E. McGhire. Foreign Policy Association, 3 West 29th St., New York.

The County Jail Must Go. Published by the Prison Association of New York. J. B. Lyon C.

An International Bankers View of the League of Nations. By Otto Kahn. The Committee of American Business Men, 354 Fourth Ave., New York.

Institutional Problems and Delinquency. By E. R. Cass. American Prison Association and Prison Association of New York, 135 E. 15th St., New York.

The Juvenile Court and the Educational System. By Thomas D. Eliot. Reprint from The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology. Evanston, Ill. Price 10 cents.

The Quasi-Delinquent Child. By Thomas D. Eliot. Reprint from The Journal of Social Forces. Chapel Hill, North Carolina. Price 10 cents.

New York City Under Prohibition. By Miss Cora Stoddard and Mr. Robert E. Corradini for the Committee on Prohibition. National Temperance Council of the United States of America.

The Growth of Music in America. By Harold Bauer. National Federation of Settlements. 20 Union Park, Boston.

Arts, Leisure and Playtime. By the Resident's Association. J. W. Arrowsmith, Ltd. Bristol, England. Price 7 d.

Private and Public Employment Contrasted. By Clinton R. Woodruff. Reprint from American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 29. University of Chicago Press.

Lessons on the Care of Infants. By Mrs. Watson. Longmans, Green & Co. Price 20 cents.

The Restoration of the Criminal. By Hastings H. Hart, LL.D. American Unitarian Association, 25 Beacon St., Boston.

Provision for the Education of Gifted Children in the United States. By Guy M. Whipple, Ph.D., Professor of Experimental Education, University of Michigan. American Child Health Association, 532 Seventeenth St., Washington. Price, 6 cents.

The Supreme Court and the Minimum Wage. By Rev. John A. Ryan, D.D. National Consumers' League, 156 Fifth Ave., New York.

Survey of the Care of Disabled Ex-Service Men in Chicago. Made for the Chicago Woman's Club by the Chicago Community Trust. By Mrs. Evelina Belden Paulson. The Chicago Community Trust, 10 South La Salle St., Chicago.

Adventures in Social Welfare

Reminiscences of things, thoughts and folks during forty years of Social work

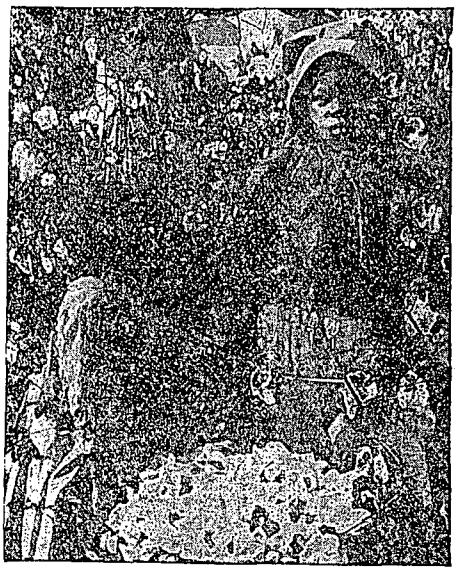
By ALEXANDER JOHNSON

Mr. R. M. Little, Chief of the N. Y. State Dept. of Vocational and Extension Education, after having read his own copy, ordered a copy sent to each of his sub-department heads, saying "I wish them to read your book because of, First—Its spirit; Second—Its common sense; Third—Its fine humor; Fourth—Its splendid optimism; Fifth—The many suggestions as to methods of doing social work, particularly in difficult fields."

This is a good book for a Chief of Staff to put into the hands of his lieutenants; say for instance, as a Christmas present.

Order from Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind. Price $3.00, postage 15 cents (anywhere). Or may be had from The Survey. Special price on lots of five or more to one address.

America's Cotton and Europe's Politics



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